

A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
SCHOOL CLIMATE AND STAFF-DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES

by

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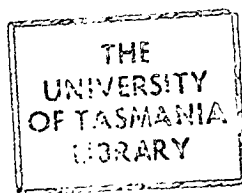
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ABSTRACT

This thesis has two purposes. The first is to investigate the relationship between staff development and perceived climate in Tasmanian schools. The second purpose is to develop approaches to improving schools using the information gained from teachers about their perceptions of school climate and staff-development practices. In addition, research questions about school climate, staff-development practices, and related school-improvement activities are suggested and discussed.

Most of the data used in this thesis were gathered during an evaluation of professional-development practices in Tasmanian schools during 1983-85. During this evaluation, year-long, intensive case studies were conducted in over thirty schools. Outcomes of these case studies included improvement of staff-development practices and development of a related policy in each school.

The study is described in three main parts. In the first part, an extensive review of the literature about school climate and staff-development practices is presented. This review establishes relationships between the concepts of 'school climate' and 'staff-development practices'. The characteristics of the terms school climate and staff-development practices, the relationships between them, and the argument why research should be done to link these concepts, are discussed. School effectiveness literature is examined to further suggest why these two concepts are related. From this literature review the first part of the thesis is developed: the conceptual framework of the study.

In the second part of the thesis the author explains why particular instruments were selected for the study. These instruments were the Work Environment Scale (WES) and the Readiness, Planning, Training, Implementation and Maintenance (RPTIM) model for school-based, staff-development practices. In this part, data for description

and validation are provided for both instruments that have been used hitherto in a limited way in Australian schools. In the author's study, both instruments were used to measure teachers' perceptions of 'actual' and 'preferred' school climates and staff-development practices.

The research reported in this thesis consolidates and extends previous research to validate the WES and the RPTIM instruments. The evidence suggests that both instruments have face validity and can be used with confidence in Australian schools. Analysis showed that both instruments possessed adequate internal consistency and discriminant validity if either an individual or a school mean was the unit of analysis. In addition, teachers in all schools were found to have similar perceptions about their 'preferred' work environments and the conduct of staff-development practices alike. However, the perceptions of the 'actual' environments elicited by both instruments differed between teachers in different types of schools: primary, grades K-6; high, grades 7-10; district high, grades K-10; colleges, grades 11-12. That is, some schools and some types of schools were closer to their preferred means than others. An analysis of the data obtained from this study suggests that, if the school climate is 'good', then staff-development practices will also be 'good'. Additional evidence is presented from a sample of school case studies to support this relationship between school climate and staff-development practices.

Third, after establishing a relationship between the results obtained by the two instruments, questions are raised about ways to enhance school climate and staff-development practices. The literature about school improvement is briefly compared with documented research on school effectiveness. Emphasis is placed on the relationships between similar characteristics described by researchers in these two related concepts. As case studies were conducted in workplaces, teachers' reflections prompted action to improve school practices. The body of published knowledge and processes by which school improvement could occur are discussed. Suggestions are made for enhancing school climate and staff-development practices. This fulfils the second purpose of the study.

The final chapter provides a summary of the study and the findings reached in relation to the research questions. Finally, there is a discussion of the implications of this research, and recommendations are made for further research specifically related to questions of school climate and staff-development practices.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1.1 Purpose of thesis

The purpose of this study is twofold:

1. To investigate the relationship between school climate and staff-development practice in Tasmanian schools.
2. To develop approaches to improving schools using information gained from teachers about their perceptions of school climate and staff-development practices.

The study described in the thesis is an investigation of the relationship between teachers' perceptions of their 'actual' and 'preferred' work environments (school climates) and the relationship between their perceptions of 'actual' and 'preferred' school staff-development practices. Furthermore, it describes an approach to developing school improvement strategies based on these investigations in Tasmanian schools. The investigation has been carried out in schools in Tasmania, Australia.

The thesis is in three main parts. An extensive review of the literature that helped formulate the conceptual framework for the

study is included as Chapter 2. This review establishes relationships between the concepts of 'school climate' and 'staff-development practices'. The characteristics of these terms and the relationships between them are discussed.

The range of literature about 'effective' schools has broadened: originally studies were made of schools whose student achievement scores were above the norms on standardised tests. Then in recent years many researchers moved to study the 'characteristics' of those schools. During the process a great deal has been written about 'school climate' and 'staff-development practices' which were traditionally considered to be major process variables. Much of the recent literature about these concepts is associated with effective schools, although both concepts have been researched for longer than effective schools. So that the characteristics associated with the concepts of school climate and staff-development practices can be identified, the literature on school effectiveness will be examined in order to provide linking ideas between these two concepts.

From this review the first part of the thesis is developed: the conceptual framework of the study. References used in the conceptual framework in Chapter 3 are extracted from the literature reviews and Appendix 3.

The second part of the thesis is an explanation of the selection of the instruments used in the study. These were the Work Environment Scale (WES) and the Readiness, Planning, Training, Implementation and Maintenance model (RPTIM) for school-based, staff-development

practices. In this part, descriptive and validation data are provided for both instruments that hitherto either have not been used, or have only been used in a limited way, in Australian schools. Both instruments have been used to measure teachers' perceptions of 'actual' and 'preferred' school climates and of staff-development practices. Data for reliability and validity are provided and the Australian results compared with those obtained in America. These data suggest that if the school climate is 'good' then staff-development practices will also be 'good', when measured by these instruments.

Third, after establishing a relationship between the results obtained by the two instruments, questions are raised about ways to enhance school climate and staff-development practices. The literature related to school improvement is briefly compared with the research related to school effectiveness. Emphasis is placed on the relationship between similar characteristics described by researchers about these two concepts. It will be argued that most of these characteristics can be altered, and approaches to school improvement will be developed later in the thesis. The reason for studying the characteristics of these two concepts is to examine what schools can do to improve their own effectiveness. As case studies were conducted in workplaces, teachers' reflections prompted action to improve school practices. Content and processes by which school improvement could occur are discussed.

In the concluding chapter the information from these three parts will be used to summarise the answers to the research questions posed in the thesis. The findings of the research will be reported and implications discussed. Finally recommendations will be made.

1.1.2 Questions for research

The study was shaped by the research questions, stated below.

1. What differences exist between actual and preferred approaches to staff development?
2. What differences exist between teachers' perceptions of actual and preferred school climates?
3. What is the relationship between approaches to staff development and the perceived climate in the school?
4. For each of Questions 1-3 above, what differences exist among schools when classified according to type, size and location?
5. What differences exist between actual and preferred staff-development practices and climates in Tasmanian schools?
6. Which policies and procedures distinguish schools according to the quality of school climate and approaches to staff development?
7. Which approaches may be adopted to enhance the quality of school climates and staff-development practices?

1.2 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

1.2.1 Evaluation of professional-development practices in Tasmania

The argument of the thesis, that school climate is related to staff-development practices, is based on a large-scale evaluation of professional-development practices in Tasmania between 1983 and 1985. The data for this thesis were obtained to investigate the two purposes outlined for the study and to attempt to answer the research questions posed. Brief details of these studies, undertaken between 1983-86 are described below.

The board of the Centre for Continuing Education of Teachers (CCET) requested that an evaluation of professional development both at the level of the state education system and the school level be conducted to:

- (1) assess the impact of professional-development activities on teachers' and students' learning; and
- (2) establish how these activities could be improved.

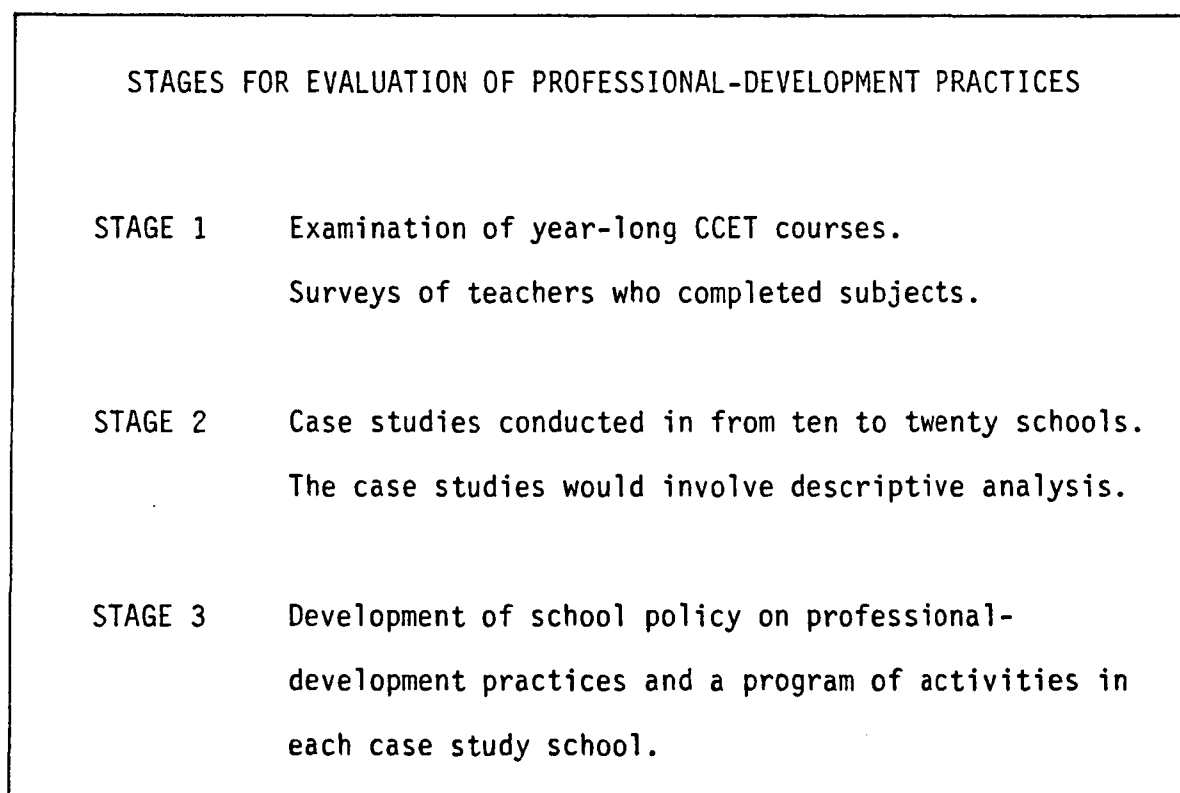
Subsequently, an evaluation proposal (see Appendix 1) was developed to examine several aspects of professional development in:

- (1) the CCET's formal, award-bearing courses; and
- (2) the professional-development practices in schools.

The evaluation outlined in the proposal included surveys by means of questionnaires and case studies of schools. Techniques for policy development and implementation were planned outcomes of the case studies. As originally envisaged, the process was to take place in three stages as shown in Figure 1.

The evaluation proposal was accepted in March 1983 by the Deputy Director-General of Education and supported by the President of the Tasmanian Teachers Federation. Work commenced immediately and data were collected throughout 1983-84. Analysis and interpretation of the information occurred during 1984-85. A report providing full details of the evaluation was prepared as a result of a request from the Director-General of Education in April 1985. The report was presented in December 1985.

FIGURE 1



This thesis largely concentrates on information obtained from schools. Thirty-one Tasmanian schools were selected to take part in intensive case studies, evaluating aspects of professional development. On May 18, 1983, the Deputy Director-General of Education forwarded a letter to schools, outlining the evaluation proposal and inviting principals to participate.

If the school's staff decided to take part, the principal selected a member of staff to complete a number of tasks. These were to co-ordinate the evaluation within the school, to write the school's case study using instruments such as questionnaires and interviews, to attend group conferences with representatives from other participating schools, and to submit copies of the report to the Centre for Continuing Education of Teachers and to the school in which the representative was employed.

The response from schools to participate in the evaluation was overwhelming. As a result, selection criteria were imposed that would provide a representative sample of Tasmanian schools. Criteria outlined in Chapter 4 were applied in order to include primary schools (both small and large), district high schools (grades K-10), high schools (grades 7-10), secondary colleges (grades 11-12) and independent schools (grades K-12, K-6 or 7-12) from each of the south, north and north-west regions of the State.

Thirty-three schools were selected to participate in the case studies as listed in Appendix 2. Data were provided from staff in twenty-six of these schools.

1.2.2 Evaluation report and subsequent studies

A report of the evaluation (Docker, Fisher and Hughes, 1985) was completed in November 1985. A copy of the recommendations chapter is included as Appendix 3.

The major findings of the evaluation have been incorporated in this thesis. The study described in this thesis was designed and directed by the author, with advice from Dr D. Fisher (Tasmanian State Institute of Technology) and Professor P. Hughes (Head, Centre for Education, University of Tasmania).

Following the publication of the report, numerous workshops were held for school personnel during 1986 to establish the best processes to be used in schools when attempting to improve school climate and staff-development practices. A number of Tasmanian schools will attempt to improve their school climates during 1986-87.

1.3 DEFINITION OF TERMS USED IN THE THESIS

This thesis examines areas of knowledge where the literature abounds with commonly used terms. Some of these terms are used synonymously and at other times to imply subtle differences of meaning. To clarify the meanings used in the context of this thesis, some definitions and explanation of terms are outlined below. These definitions and concepts are more fully discussed in the literature review in Chapter 2.

1.3.1 School Climate

Brookover defines school climate as being:

'The norms of the social system and expectations held for various members as perceived by members of the group and communicated to members of the group.'
(Brookover, 1978:301-18)

Hoy and Miskel define organisational climate as:

'The set of internal characteristics that distinguish one school from another and influence the behaviour of people in it.'
(Hoy and Miskel, 1982:185)

Concepts in these definitions are incorporated in the meaning of school climate as presented in this thesis. Some writers have more recently structured and developed the meaning of school climate but left the meaning similar to that outlined above. For instance, Murphy et al. suggested that:

'School climate may be divided into academic and social climate. Norms, processes, and structures in the academic climate directly promote quality instruction and improved student performance. Social climate norms, processes, and structures indirectly facilitate learning by making the school and its activities important to individuals.'
(Murphy et al., 1985:366)

Other writers such as Beare (1984), Bennis (1984), Sergiovanni et al. (1984) and Starratt (1986) write about school culture. Sergiovanni describes 'school culture' in the following manner:

'School culture includes values, symbols, beliefs, and shared meanings of parents, students, teachers and others the "stuff" of culture includes a school's customs and traditions; historical accounts; stated and unstated understandings; habits, norms, and expectations; common meanings and shared assumptions. The more understood, accepted, and cohesive the culture of a school, the better able it is to move in concert towards ideals it holds and objectives it wishes to pursue.'
(Sergiovanni, 1984(a):9)

There are overlapping characteristics involved in describing school 'climate', 'ethos' and 'culture'. Purkey and Smith discuss these constituents by stating that successful schools:

'are found to have cultures that produce a climate or "ethos" conducive to teaching and learning (Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, Ouston and Smith, 1979). As dynamic social systems (Brookover et al., 1979), school cultures will vary, in part in response to the composition of the staff and student body and to the environment in which the school exists, leaving each school with a unique climate or "personality" (see Haplin and Croft, 1963; Wynne, 1980; also Popkewitz, Tabachnick and Wehlage, 1982). Nevertheless, academically effective schools are likely to possess a cluster of similar characteristics that encourage and promote student achievement.'

(Purkey and Smith, 1985:356-7)

It is generally agreed that a school culture determines deep patterns, meanings and beliefs. Depending on a school's culture, its climate at any given time may be good or bad. For example, a newly appointed principal may ignore the school culture, and thus create a bad climate. Put another way, culture is the deep infrastructure of a human organisation; climate is one of its effects. Culture influences climate, but is not the same as it. The school culture, once established, is an enduring set of relatively stable values, but a climate can be negative or positive at any time.

Generally, most researchers examining school climate would list a set of characteristics which may include:

- . a safe and orderly environment;
- . uniform discipline procedures among staff;
- . safe and clean physical conditions;
- . adequate work space;
- . attractive and pleasant conditions;
- . high expectations for learning of all students;
- . widespread rewards and recognition for both students and staff;
- . opportunities for meaningful student involvement;

- . low delinquency among students;
- . student respect for the property of others;
- . home-school co-operation and support;
- . high levels of cohesiveness and team spirit among students and teachers;
- . student and staff support;
- . establishment of collaborative organisational processes;
- . few applications for teacher transfer;
- . a co-operative and friendly atmosphere;
- . trust and open communications;
- . a sense of community;
- . a stable staff;
- . faculty taking responsibility for outcomes of educational programs;
- . commitment to school goals;
- . sharing of teacher materials and talk about curriculum and instruction;
- . high morale among teachers;
- . teachers checking up on implementation of school policy on aspects such as homework and punctuality.

These characteristics are further examined in Chapters 2 and 3.

In this thesis, the author will be addressing most characteristics of school climate as identified in the literature, but investigating only teachers' perceptions of aspects of their work environment. Thus the research described will include most of the characteristics listed above with the exception of data related to students. Student perceptions of school climate are not included in this study.

Other terms often used synonymously with school climate in the literature, are 'work environment' or 'school environment'. They define a set of characteristics, similar to those defined by school climate, in the areas of relationships between people in schools, personal traits, roles and tasks of people working in schools, and aspects of schools such as staff supervision, innovation, work pressure, clarity of tasks and physical comfort.

As quotations used in the thesis are taken from a number of sources, including England, America and Australia, spellings have been standardised throughout the text. Quotations used have been similarly treated for the purpose of editorial consistency. Preferred spellings are those given first in the Concise Oxford dictionary.

1.3.2 Professional development

Morris (1982) has drawn attention to the large number of terms used to refer to the continuing education of teachers. 'Professional development', 'in-service training' and 'staff development' are frequently used synonymously in the literature. Indeed, in Australia the Commonwealth Schools Commission uses the term 'professional development', whilst a number of Australian states use the term 'staff development', to describe the same activities. Generally, the term 'professional development' is used in the literature from the United Kingdom and Australia, whilst in America the term 'staff development' is used more specifically to imply training of staff.

In addition, these terms usually include a wide variety of interrelated activities, such as staff development or training, professional development, curriculum development, senior staff development, and school or organisational development. Sometimes the term 'institutional development' is used for school or organisational development.

In this thesis, the terms 'professional development' and 'staff development' are used interchangeably, and refer to the variety of interrelated activities mentioned above.

Condensing a number of definitions, Morris commented that:

'To a great degree, the words chosen reflect the writer's view of teaching. Those who aim toward a wider acceptance of teaching as a profession tend to favour professional development.'
(Morris, 1982:23)

During the conduct of the two-year-long evaluation of staff-development practices in Tasmania, there was much debate about the meaning of 'professional development'. As a result of this discussion within all the schools involved in the case studies, and in many other forums, it was concluded that Tasmanian teachers preferred a broad meaning for the term 'professional development' and that the meaning should include personal as well as professional growth. Most teachers believe these two broad aspects are interrelated.

The following statement was adopted for this evaluation and received considerable support in all schools:

'Professional development aims to increase teachers' knowledge of, understanding of, and expertise in their professional work, through activities designed to attain this goal.'
(Docker, Fisher, Hughes, 1985:119)

Through such professional-development activities, teachers should be able to:

- . evaluate their work and attitudes with their colleagues;
- . develop competence, confidence, and knowledge;

- . identify further professional needs, including those arising from the relationship between the school and a changing society; and
- . advance their careers.

The statement used in the Tasmanian evaluation was primarily derived from the work of Morant (1981) in the United Kingdom. The statement reflects the similarity between the term 'professional development' as it is used in Australia and in the United Kingdom.

In America, as mentioned earlier, staff development is usually more specifically described, as for example in this definition by Griffin:

'any systematic attempt to alter professional practices, beliefs, and understandings of school persons towards an articulated end.'
(Griffin, 1983:2)

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THIS STUDY

This study is significant for these reasons:

1. Data were gathered in schools in Tasmania. The surveys led teachers in schools to reflect on how to improve their practice, so the study reported in the thesis has had a considerable effect upon practising teachers, school improvement strategies and school policies. The teachers' reflections prompted action to improve school practices.
2. The study has established a relationship between school climate and staff-development practices. The characteristics

of these concepts were constantly mentioned in research on school effects and school improvement. While acknowledging in Chapter 2, that much of the research on effectiveness is flawed, the characteristics of the two concepts are consistently evident in descriptions of schools considered to be 'effective'. The relationship between the characteristics of these terms and outcomes is further reinforced in the body of literature about school improvement. 'Good' schools as identified in both bodies of literature have a positive school climate and good staff-development practices. This study draws linking ideas from both bodies of literature and then develops a research design that leads for the first time to findings that demonstrate a relationship between school climate and staff development in a representative sample of Tasmanian schools. As such it has worldwide implications and is a substantial contribution to the body of knowledge in these areas.

3. The study forms a contribution to research. It describes traditional, empirical study in the form of case studies that were made in a work setting. Planned outcomes of the case studies were that:

- (i) conclusions have implications for schools' policies;
and

- (ii) school improvement strategies would be developed as a result of the research in the case studies.

1.5 OVERVIEW OF THE THESIS

The first part of this thesis is an examination of the literature that leads to the conceptual framework for the study. Chapter 1 has served the following purposes:

- . defined the purposes of the study and research questions to be examined;
- . indicated the relationship of this investigation to the Evaluation of Professional Development Practices In Tasmania 1983-85;
- . defined the terms used in and the limits of the investigation; and
- . established the significance of the investigation in a broader context.

In Chapter 2, the author examines the characteristics of the terms 'school climate' and 'staff-development practices' defined in Chapter 1. From an examination of the literature, there has been much good research and many good reasons suggested as to why these two concepts should be related to one another. Flaws in the research about effective schools are acknowledged, however the literature does reinforce the notion that the characteristics associated with these two concepts are related and reasons are developed to explain why a study should be carried out to determine this relationship. A unifying 'theory' is presented which might explain this hypothesised link.

In Chapter 3, the author tabulates these characteristics and establishes a conceptual framework for the investigation, including a discussion about studying and measuring human environments.

In the second part of the thesis the empirical investigation is discussed in detail and the relationship between school climate and staff-development practices is established.

In Chapter 4, the author discusses the selection of instruments used in the study, provides descriptive analysis and validation data, details about the methods and procedures for data analysis.

In Chapter 5, the author discusses how the WES survey is applied to measuring aspects of the school climate. In Chapter 6, the author discusses how the RPTIM survey is applied to measuring aspects of staff-development practices. In both Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 the author examines the nature of the results of the surveys, explains the nature of the analysis applied to the results and draws conclusions from these results.

In Chapter 7, the author establishes an association between the results obtained from the use of the WES and RPTIM instruments, examines supportive evidence from school case-studies and concludes with a discussion about any relationships between school climates and staff-development practices that may be inferred. The analysis of data provided in the case studies extends the empirical data. This chapter establishes a relationship between staff-development practices and perceived climate in Tasmanian schools.

In Chapter 8 of the thesis there is a brief comparison of the literature related to school improvement and school effectiveness. Emphasis is placed on the relationship between similar characteristics described by researchers writing about these two related areas of inquiry. The school improvement literature is basically about empowering people in schools to improve themselves. It is about people working together to solve the problems they face in schools. It is argued that a positive school climate and good staff-development practices are essential to achieve school improvement. Suggestions are made in this chapter about how schools may enhance their school climate and staff-development practices.

In Chapter 9, the author provides a summary of the study. The findings are outlined and a discussion of the implications follows. Recommendations are made and finally a conclusion confirms the relationship between school climate and staff-development practices.

CHAPTER 2

A LITERATURE REVIEW OF SCHOOL CLIMATE AND STAFF-DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES

The purpose of this chapter is to examine recent research studies and determine what there is in the literature that suggests the concepts of 'school climate' and 'staff-development practices' should be linked. In addition, the characteristics associated with these concepts and relationships between them are discussed.

The research related to school effectiveness is examined to establish linking ideas between these concepts. While acknowledging these research studies were conducted using a variety of research methodologies, and based on a variety of assumptions about the nature of schooling, they invariably list characteristics associated with school climate and staff development as essential features of 'effective' schools. Improved student learning is also clearly a concern for people studying change and school improvement processes. They take a larger view of student learning than the more test-score orientated researchers in the school effectiveness movement. A literature review of school improvement in Chapter 8 also highlights the importance and interrelated nature of the concepts of school climate and staff development.

The chapter concludes with a unifying 'theory' which may explain the relationship between school climate and staff-development practices. A hypothetical 'good' school is postulated from the

characteristics and ideas presented in this literature review. It provides a theoretical understanding of what factors appear important in developing a 'good' school and how teachers in schools experience their lives and their work with children. It also suggests why a positive school climate and good staff-development are so crucially important and how these two concepts interact with each other.

2.1 SCHOOL CLIMATE

2.1.1 Definitions

The concept of school climate has been defined by many researchers as noted below.

Rutter et al noted at the beginning of their study that

'research suggests the importance of the school ethos or atmosphere but, of course, it leaves entirely open the crucial question of what actions by staff (or others) serve to establish particular types of climate.'

(Rutter et al., 1979:18)

Cuban (1983), when arguing that no one knows how to create effective schools, commented that:

'None of the highly detailed, lovingly written descriptions of effective schools can point to a blueprint of what a teacher, principal, or superintendent should do in order to improve academic achievement. Who knows with predictable precision how to construct a positive, enduring school climate? ... We have signs but no roadmaps.'

(Cuban 1983:695)

This section examines the concept of school climate and attempts to identify common characteristics or 'signs'. Later chapters suggest

how these characteristics can be measured and how a 'roadmap' may be developed to construct a positive and enduring school climate.

Halpin and Croft defined school climate by analogy:

'Personality is to the individual what "climate" is to the organisation.'

(Halpin and Croft, 1963:1)

Definitions have become more complex and are related to the increasing body of empirical evidence which suggests that one of the key features of effective schools is a healthy, positive climate characterised by supportiveness, open communication, and collaboration (Owens, 1981:226).

Litwin and Stringer defined climate as:

'The perceived subjective efforts of the formal system, the informal "style" of managers, and other important environmental factors on the attitudes, beliefs, values and motivation of people who work in a particular organisation.'

(Litwin and Stringer, 1968:5)

Other definitions of school climate (for example by Hoy and Miskel (1982) and Brookover et al. (1978)) all discuss or imply a set of internal characteristics that define school climate. These characteristics usually relate to relationships between teachers in a school, their personal traits, or aspects of school maintenance and change. It is the interactions of these characteristics that gives a school a distinctive 'personality' or 'climate'.

In the investigations described in this thesis, the aspect of school climate examined will be limited to the teachers' perceptions

of their work environment for teachers and for teaching. It is acknowledged that a school may be identified where the climate for teachers is good but the students' perceptions might be quite negative about the climate for them.

Walberg concluded an extensive review of the literature by linking school climate to students' achievement:

'... teacher perceptions of an educational program that is effective, of constructive principal-teacher relations, of effective community-school interaction and of a strong voice by teachers in the formulation and execution of the educational program, are associated with student achievement'.

(Walberg, 1982:301)

It will be argued that many of these areas are related to characteristics of work environment listed later.

2.1.2 Characteristics and related issues

The concept of school climate, and the characteristics of school climate as described by a range of researchers, follow.

Anderson (1982:369) discussed Tagiuri's taxonomy (1968) which effectively categorises literature about school climate. According to Tagiuri, the dimensions of an environment include:

- . ecology (physical and material aspects);
- . milieu (the social dimension concerned with the presence of people and groups);

- . social system (the social dimension concerned with patterned relationships between people and groups); and
- . culture (the social dimension concerned with belief systems, values, cognitive structures and meaning).

Anderson pointed out that Moos (1974), and Insel and Moos (1974), developed a similar taxonomic device for conceptualising human environments. This delineation of human environments, called social ecology, describes human interactions with physical and social dimensions of the environment. It includes climate and psychosocial characteristics as one of six approaches to the human environment.

Anderson argued that the unifying threads of research about school climate are few and fragile; nevertheless she cited research studies to indicate that some agreement existed between researchers in the areas noted below:

- '(a) schools do possess something called climate, unique to each organisation; (Kalis, 1980; Owens, 1970; Sinclair, 1970);
 - (b) such differences, while discernible, are elusive, complex and difficult to describe and measure; (Cusick, 1973; Rutter et al., 1979; Tye, 1974; Weber, 1971);
 - (c) climate is influenced by, but not a proxy for, particular dimensions of the school such as student body characteristics (Bloom, 1966; Farkas, 1974; Snyder and Spreitzer, 1979; New York Department, 1976; Willower and Jones, 1963), or classroom processes (Bidwell, 1972; Cohen, Deal, Meyer and Scott, 1976);
 - (d) climate affects many student outcomes, including cognitive and affective behaviour (Baker, 1963; Brookover et al., 1978; Duke and Perry, 1978; Weber, 1971) values (Taba, 1955; Vyskocil and Goens, 1979), and personal growth and satisfaction (Bailey, 1979; Coyne, 1975; Cox, 1978; Vyskocil and Goens, 1979); and
 - (e) understanding the influence of climate will improve the understanding and prediction of student behaviour.'
- (Anderson, 1982:368)

Another issue raised by Anderson was about the debate over the objectivity and subjectivity of measuring school climates. She stated

that:

'Beyond the problem of what variables to study and how to measure them, school climate research is plagued by the phenomenological debate: the validity of participant perceptions as a measure of school climate. The issue concerns whether participants' subjective judgments can be as accurate in defining climate as an objective measure.'

(Anderson, 1982:386)

After discussion of this issue, Anderson concluded that perceptual data are usually accepted by researchers as direct indicators of normative climates. Furthermore, she commented:

'The assumption that Halpin and Croft (1963) made in their original research has continued to be the guiding light for most climate research: the actual behaviour is less important than perceived behaviour because perception is what controls one's responses.'

(Anderson, 1982:386)

Anderson discussed the debate among researchers about what variables work together to create school climates. Anderson suggested that most researchers agreed that outcomes stem from the combined characteristics of interacting variables. The difficulty came in choosing the variables that best explain climate (Tornatzky, Brookover, Hathaway, Miller, and Passalacqua, 1980). Anderson suggested that even if variables were sampled from each of the four (Tagiuri) dimensions of the environment then the question arose of 'how many' was enough or too much to be addressed:

'In principle just about everything may make a difference to behaviour, yet to include everything is not useful.'

(Tagiuri, 1968:14)

Following Tagiuri's statements, it is argued here that many researchers have listed similar characteristics when describing school climate. A set of such characteristics were listed in Chapter 1. This

list was developed from the review of research findings about the characteristics of school climate that follows.

Owens (1981) stated that the effectiveness of a school is influenced significantly by the quality and character of the organisational climate. He based his conclusions on the findings of studies about how organisational performance is related to organisational climate. Furthermore, he pointed out that schools that emphasise supportiveness, open communication and intellectuality, and that reward achievement and success, out-perform those schools that stress competition, constraint, restrictive rules, standards and operational procedures, and reward conformity. Owens goes on to describe how a more 'participative' or 'open' climate promotes school effectiveness. This is a climate in which teachers see principals providing direction, support and consideration. Haplin and Croft (1963) point out that such a climate allows teachers to gain satisfaction from their work, pride in their school and autonomy in solving problems. This contrasts to a 'closed climate' in which group members obtain little satisfaction in either task achievement or social needs. Whether a school has an 'open' or 'closed' climate is related to how teachers perceive their work environment.

Rutter and his associates commented:

'teachers in more successful schools reported that superordinates knew what was going in their schools, and checked up on the implementation of school policy on such aspects as homework and punctuality.'

(Cited in Misko, 1985:15)

Teachers in more successful schools perceived a co-operative approach to school management, one that recognised the functions of

different individuals at different levels of the organisation. This co-operative approach meant a shared commitment to organisational goals, expectations that students will achieve educationally, and a willingness to trust superordinates with making decisions. This is indicative of the 'open climate' that has been shown by research to be related positively to students' results.

In both Rutter et al. (1979), and the Phi Delta Kappan study (1980) of eight high-achieving schools, the decoration and care of schools and classrooms were associated with higher achievement by students.

Thus, school climate, as described by researchers such as Halplin and Croft, Owens, Rutter et al., includes numerous contributing factors.

Sergiovanni and Starratt related the importance of organisational climate to school effectiveness. They state that:

'Climate was viewed as a combination of enduring characteristics which describe a particular school and distinguish it from other schools, and the feeling which teachers and students have for that school. Accordingly, climate represents a composite of mediating variables which intervene between initiating and school-effectiveness variables. Supervisors ... can exert direct influence on school climate through the leadership they provide. Bureaucratic leadership, for example, tends to be associated with relatively closed climate and low performance and satisfaction. Human relations leadership tends to be associated with a warm, supportive, and friendly climate and with low performance but high satisfaction and some innovation. Human resources leadership tends to be associated with a supportive, goal-orientated, climate and high performance, satisfaction, and some innovation.'

(Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1979:96)

In suggesting a conceptual framework for school climate study, Murphy et al. stated that school social climate comprises three related components. These components are:

- '(1) important norms that guide behaviour, for example, high expectations for performance and staff accountability for student performance;
 - (2) organisational processes that help the school community to carry out important work, for example, shared decision making and open communications; and
 - (3) structures that reinforce and/or provide the context for quality instruction, for example, discipline procedures and systems for involving students in school activities.'
- (Murphy et al., 1985:366)

Furthermore, Murphy et al. stated that:

'School climate may be divided into academic climate and social climate. Norms, processes, and structures in the academic climate directly promote quality instruction and improved student performance. Social climate norms, processes, and structures indirectly facilitate student learning by making the school and its activities important to individuals.'

(Murphy et al., p. 366)

They also listed the following climate variables:

- . opportunities for meaningful student involvement;
 - . widespread rewards and recognition;
 - . collaborative organisational processes;
 - . high expectations;
 - . home-school co-operation and support;
 - . safe and orderly environment; and
 - . student and staff cohesion and support.
- (Murphy et al., pp. 366-9)

Murphy et al. did not present these variables as a causal model and pointed out that although the climate variables represent important elements of the effectiveness research, it seems unlikely that they have a substantial impact on students' achievement in and of themselves.

In addition, Murphy et al. commented on an interesting hypothesis, supported by their own observations, that different combinations of variables combined to create effectiveness in different schools. That

is, there are different ways to develop effective schools. They pointed out that it appeared that some combination of technological and environmental factors was most efficacious for school development (see Figure 3).

In her book, 'The Good High School', Lightfoot (1983) presented a point of view different from that of most researchers on school effectiveness. She examined the concept of 'goodness' in six selected high schools. 'Goodness', according to Lightfoot, refers to a definition of the quality of schools themselves and another dynamic that cannot be measured by elements or indicators of effectiveness. Lightfoot viewed schools as being made up of a complex mixture of people, elements, tangible and intangible indices, such as ethos, that are difficult to examine.

Lightfoot stated that good schools are led by people who see themselves as educational leaders, who provide strong, consistent and inspired leadership. She noted that good schools are characterised by good teachers - at least more good teachers than poor teachers. Such schools usually have high levels of autonomy and independence.

Lightfoot wrote:

'In all six schools, I was struck by the centrality and dominance of teachers and by the careful attention given to their needs.'
(Lightfoot, p. 333)

She continued:

'In all of these schools, therefore, teachers are seen as the central actors in the educational process. ... Each school interprets teacher rewards differently, but all of them search for a balance between the expression of teacher autonomy, initiative, and adulthood on the one hand, and the requirements of conformity, discipline, and commitments to school life on the other ... Good

schools are ultimately dependent on good teachers - smart and inspired people, people who have something to teach. ... increasing autonomy, reward, stimulation, and the adult regard of teachers who are generally competent, or even gifted, will enhance their effectiveness as pedagogues and critical members of the school community'.

(Lightfoot, pp. 341-2)

Good schools, according to Lightfoot, were also characterised by a fearless and emphatic regard for students. The schools were safe environments with a feeling of a good school community.

2.1.3 School and classroom environments and other related terms

The concept of school environment or climate has appeared with increasing frequency in the educational literature during the last decade (Anderson, 1982; Deer, 1980). An important distinction can be drawn between school environment and classroom environment (Fraser and Rentoul, 1982; Genn, 1984). Whereas classroom climate might involve relationships between teachers and their students or among students, school climate might involve a teacher's relationship with other teachers, senior staff and the school principal. Students' perceptions are used frequently to measure classroom environment, but they are seldom used in studies for measuring school climate. Also, school environment must be considered to be further reaching than classroom environment. Furthermore, research about the classroom environment (for example Moos, 1979; Walberg, 1979; Fraser 1981a, 1985) has been based on theoretical and conceptual foundations different from the foundations of research about school environment, which has tended to be associated with the field of educational administration, viewing schools as formal organisations (Thomas, 1976).

While different terms such as organisational climate, work environment and school climate are used in the literature, their meanings appear to be similar.

As noted at the beginning of this section, Anderson concluded that 'climate' is conceptually messy and almost defies (in its imprecision) any research study that claims validity and reliability. These findings this author cannot accept. It has been argued in this review of the literature that a similar set of research based characteristics (listed in Chapter 1) have been identified and they form the concept of school climate in the minds of a wide range of researchers. As the organisational climate consists of many internal characteristics each of which is subject to change, it is argued here that the school climate can be changed. As a positive organisational climate should encourage constructive change in school, it is also argued that some analysis of the school climate would be necessary before the start of any program involving change.

Furthermore, it will be argued in this thesis that instruments could measure most of these identified characteristics. Field testing of these instruments may then establish relative reliability and validity.

This thesis will report on investigations of teachers' perceptions of their working environment for teachers and for teaching. Students' perceptions of school climate are not included in this study. As a result, those characteristics related to students that were identified by researchers are not included.

The meaning of climate encompassed in this thesis will include most of the teacher characteristics identified by researchers reviewed in this chapter.

2.1.4 School culture

Researchers indicate some overlapping of the characteristics between the two concepts school climate and school culture.

Sergiovanni defined 'school culture' in the following manner:

'School culture includes values, symbols, beliefs, and shared meanings of parents, students, teachers and others ... the "stuff" of culture includes a school's customs and traditions; historical accounts; stated and unstated understandings; habits, norms, and expectations; common meanings and shared assumptions. The more understood, accepted, and cohesive the culture of a school, the better able it is to move in concert toward ideals it holds and objectives it wishes to pursue.'

(Sergiovanni, 1984:9)

Purkey and Smith reviewed a hundred or so research reports in the context of a model of school culture.

'School culture perspective rejects the view that schools are relatively static constructs of discrete variables. Instead schools are thought to be dynamic social systems made up of interrelated factors ... This mix of interconnected characteristics is unique to each school and provides each with a definite personality or climate'.

(Purkey and Smith, 1983:83-4)

The most persuasive research suggests that students' academic performance is strongly affected by school culture (Brookover, Beady, Flood, Schweitzer, and Wisenbaker; 1979). Purkey and Smith (1985) contended that this culture is composed of values, norms and roles existing within institutionally distinct structures of governance, communication, educational practices and policies. They observed that successful schools:

'are found to have cultures that produce a climate or "ethos" conducive to teaching and learning (Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, Ouston, and Smith, 1979). As dynamic social systems (Brookover et al., 1979), school cultures will vary, in part in response to the composition of the staff and student body and to the environment in which the school exists, leaving each school with a unique climate or "personality" (see Halpin and Croft 1963; Wynne, 1980; also Popkewitz, Tabachick and Wehlage, 1982). Nevertheless, academically effective schools are likely to possess a cluster of similar characteristics that encourage and promote student achievement.'

(Purkey and Smith, 1985:356-7)

School culture determines deep patterns, values symbols and beliefs about a school. The school culture in turn produces a school climate or definite personality of a school. The culture is the deep infrastructure of a human organisation. Climate is one of its effects and may be positive or negative. Some cultures produce a climate more conducive to teaching and learning than others.

This review clearly indicates that a positive school climate is a characteristics of an 'effective' or 'good' school. The characteristics of school climate have been identified by numerous researchers so far in this chapter. There is a commonality of these characteristics as outlined in Chapter 1. These recurring characteristics are the 'signs' mentioned by Cuban at the beginning of this section. Further discussion in later chapters will indicate how this knowledge may be used to construct positive and enduring school climates. A conceptually based approach to research that aims to better understand school climate and its relationship with staff-development practices will be developed. The longer term aim of this research is to improve school climates and staff-development practices. The author will argue that this could form, in Cuban's term, a roadmap, a way of improving school climate and staff-development practices.

2.2 PROFESSIONAL-DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES IN SCHOOLS

This section has four purposes: to present a discussion of definitions related to professional development; to clarify the meaning of professional development; to examine the characteristics of successful staff-development activities; and to establish links between staff development and the literature on school effectiveness.

2.2.1 Definitions

Morris (1982) has drawn attention to the large number of terms used to refer to the continuing education of teachers. 'In-service education', 'staff development', 'in-service training', 'professional development', 'continuous professional growth' and 'personal renewal' are just some of the terms found in the literature.

Reynolds and Clark (1982) suggested that changes in terminology were linked with changing models of in-service activity. In reviewing the definitions developed over the last few decades, they noted that the change in the early 1970s from in-service 'training' to in-service 'education' was associated with a growing sense of professionalism during this period.

A gradual expansion from the training of individual teachers to the development of the school's environmental resources, has been emphasised in research and practice. Morant (1981) viewed training as 'being concerned with the acquisition of skills and techniques using standardised learning procedures and sequences.' Cane enlarged upon this view, to state that:

'In-service training is taken to include all those courses and activities in which a serving teacher may participate for the purpose of extending his professional knowledge, interest or skill.'

(Cane, cited in Morant, 1981:2)

The Karmel Report (cited in Reynolds and Clark 1982), the Texas Education Agency (1982) and Morant (1981), emphasised the planned nature of in-service training and education. Lieberman and Miller stated that:

'Staff development provides the opportunity for imparting professional learning to teachers and administrators as part of the general improvement program of a school'.

(Lieberman and Miller, 1981:583)

Reynolds and Clark (1982) noticed the change in development of teachers between the 1973 Karmel Report and the June 1985 Report of the Commonwealth Schools Commission. The shift was away from individuals' needs and towards schools' needs.

Staff development was used to convey this change in emphasis. This meant that a teacher's self-education and needs for development were not to be considered in isolation, but in the context of the school's needs, as perceived by the staff and perhaps members of the community.

Lieberman conveyed this change in emphasis quite clearly, when she stated that:

'We use the term staff development instead of in-service because it suggests a different approach to improvement, one that considers the effects of the whole school (the staff) or the individual (the teacher) and the necessity for long-term growth possibilities (development). We reject the idea of giving courses and workshops to individual teachers in isolation from their peers in their school'.

(Lieberman, cited in Reynolds and Clark, 1982:9)

This change in emphasis has implications for the provision of activities for staff development, with staff of schools taking the initiative for conducting their own activities in areas of perceived need.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979) made a conceptual distinction between staff development and in-service education. They regarded staff development as growth-oriented, working continually to increase the range of alternatives open to teachers and to improve the quality of teaching. In-service education was seen as focusing on ideas, skills, and methods in which teachers were deficient. The emphasis was placed upon keeping teachers up to a standard.

In practice, the terms 'staff development' and 'professional development' are often interchanged and, to some extent, reflect the viewpoints of writers and the definitions that they choose. As Reynolds and Clark (1982) pointed out, the problem with seeking a definition of professional development, or whatever other term one may use, is in trying to ensure that it is comprehensive enough to satisfy various viewpoints, as well as restrictive enough to be workable. For example, consider the definition suggested by Dull:

'It is the sum of all activities designed for the purpose of improving, expending, and renewing the skills, knowledge, and abilities of staff personnel. It is made up of institutes, workshops, seminars, personal conferences, and special meetings in and out of school'.

(Dull, 1981:110)

McCarthy's definition suggested:

'Staff development is the facilitation of growth. It requires a knowledge of our clients; a talent for scanning the outside world for support; a belief that support and challenge give people the courage to create; an intuitive feel of how much space to give, and an impeccable sense of timing'.

(McCarthy, 1982:20)

The latter definition could be considered more comprehensive; the former more workable.

In particular, it was noted in the material cited, that the concept of professional development, as distinct from training, received more emphasis and recognition.

Summarising a number of definitions, Morris commented that:

'To a great degree, the words chosen reflect the writer's view of teaching. Those who aim toward a wider acceptance of teaching as a profession tend to favour professional development'.

(Morris, 1982:23)

The importance of a definition would appear to be in its link to the activities that might be used to achieve the aims of professional development. Morant offered a definition that combined the broader concept of in-service education with the purposeful activities and experiences of in-service education. He stated that:

'... in-service education aims to widen and deepen teachers' knowledge, understanding and expertise (including skills, techniques, and power of judgement) in respect of their professional work, by means of activities designed primarily to attain this purpose.'

(Morant, 1981:3)

During the two years of the Tasmanian evaluation project, there was much debate about the meaning of professional development. As a result of this discussion in each of the schools involved in the case

studies, and in many other forums, it was concluded that teachers preferred a broad meaning to the term 'professional development'. The meaning should embrace personal as well as professional growth. Most teachers believed these two broad aspects were closely related.

The statement adopted for this evaluation received considerable support in all schools. The statement is that:

'Professional development aims to increase teachers' knowledge of, understanding of, and expertise in their professional work, through activities designed to attain this goal.' (Adapted from Morant, 1981)

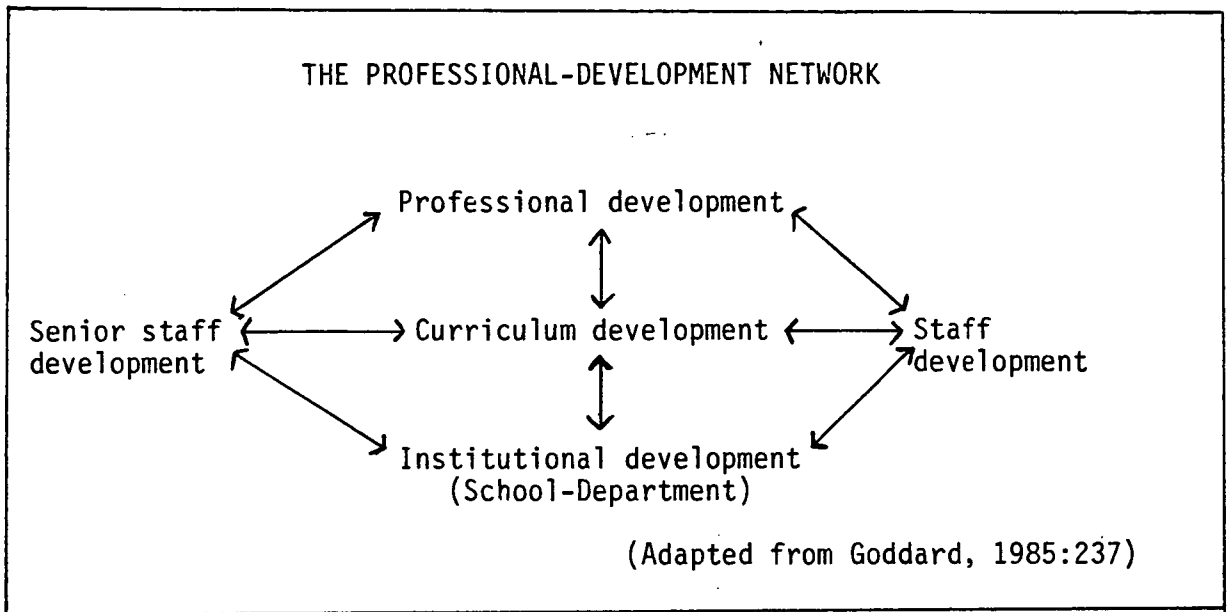
For the purpose of this thesis, the terms 'professional development' and 'staff development' will be used interchangeably, due to the mixing of wording in different countries. In the United States, the term 'staff development' may be used with a more restrictive and focused meaning.

2.2.2 The professional-development network

People working in the development and evaluation of curriculum, consultancy, staff development, teacher education in tertiary institutions, and school-based curriculum and staff development, are working in related and linked areas. None of these areas is independent of the others. The nature of the interrelationship of these elements is summarised in Figure 2.

In Figure 2, institutional development involves organisational development, school climates or work environments. Staff development refers to training staff in specific skills. All parties involved in a professional-development network have an important part to play in the

FIGURE 2



process, and only in this way can the needs of all teachers be reasonably met. It is up to each to work out what they can do best, and how to assist the needs expressed by teachers and schools.

It is essential that all parties serving the needs of teachers and schools extend and strengthen the practices at all levels to identify needs and establish communication and links. Schools in turn need to devise strategies, possibly through working parties and committees, to meet whole-school needs. The effective and efficient provision of support services can only be achieved when the needs are clearly known. Also, within each school all aspects of professional development are to be considered and acted upon if improvements are to occur within a school. All the factors of the professional-development network are to be considered, to obtain the best improvement for schools.

2.2.3 Professional development and related issues

Assuming a suitable school climate is established, a number of practices need to be in place for successful professional development to occur at a school or system level. This section will deal with a number of these practices. First, the structure of professional-development activities has to include certain critical staff-development practices. Second, the needs of teachers, a diverse group of adult learners with different learning styles, must be addressed. Third, the personal and professional needs of teachers which provide the motivational force for improving teacher performance must be balanced with the needs of the school and the educational system.

Many researchers comment on the link between school climate and professional development of teachers. It was recognised by Wood et al. (1982) that the working environment of the school has a significant impact on the commitment of teachers to professional development (Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson, 1982(a):28). According to Edwards (1983:29), effective staff development can take place only if a suitable climate has been established.

2.2.3.1 Critical staff-development practices

The importance of the school leader in articulating the need for and providing appropriate expectations for staff development are highlighted by many researchers. Little (1981) also highlighted the

fact that all staff must believe in staff development if professional growth is to occur. She suggested that a group attitude towards staff development is governed by the nature and extent of interpersonal relationships within the school:

'The success of staff-development activities - structured or unstructured, formal or informal - depends significantly upon prevailing attitudes within the organisation in which it is hoped that new ideas will be implemented.'

(Little, 1981(a):1)

A number of writers have outlined critical staff-development practices for successful school staff development. Mulford argued that the crux for improving staff-development practices is:

'... for more successful staff development in schools there is a need to give greater emphasis to implementation and that the most important aspect of effective implementation is obtaining co-operation among teachers (and between teachers and the community).'

(Mulford, 1986:24)

Duignan and Johnson (1983) regarded staff development as a fundamental and continuous process that is part of the everyday operation of the school because the desire for development is embedded in the ethos and organisation of the school, permeating every aspect of its life. They suggested that two shared expectations of 'collegiality' and 'experimentation' are necessary if staff-development practices are to be successful.

Furthermore, six critical staff-practices were identified in a selection of Australian schools as being associated with these norms:

- ' shared talk;
- . joint preparation;
- . informing;
- . in-service, with reporting back to staff;
- . interschool joint preparation; and
- . social contact.'

(Duignan and Johnson, 1983:6)

Some of the most far-reaching research about effective staff development was reported by Showers, Joyce and Bennett (1987). They recognise that the major dimension of teaching skill is cognitive. Their studies further demonstrate that by far the most effective staff development - enabling teachers to reach levels of skill that could sustain classroom practice in sets of complex models of teaching - involves use of a process or model of 'theory-demonstration-practice-feedback'.

In addition, when Showers et al. discussed achieving a transfer of a complex model of teaching to a teacher's classroom practice, they stated that about 25 teaching episodes during which the new strategy is used are necessary before all the conditions of transfer are achieved. This means that much follow up is needed to implement and maintain a teaching practice. Showers, Joyce and Bennett identified a process and a number of critical staff-development practices.

From a synthesis of research, Purkey and Smith suggested that school effectiveness is not likely to result from a small number of discrete changes imposed on schools from people who are acting externally to the school. They stated:

'Rather, the organisational looseness of schools and the resulting relative autonomy of teachers in the classroom indicate that school cohesiveness can be obtained through building staff agreement on and commitment to clearly and commonly identified norms and goals (see, e.g. Deer and Deal 1979; Meyer and Rowan 1978; Miles 1981; Weick 1976). At the same time, efforts to change schools have been productive and most enduring when directed toward influencing the entire school culture via a strategy involving collaborative planning, shared decision making, and collegial work in an atmosphere friendly to experimentation and

evaluation (see Deal, Intili, Rosaler and Stackhouse 1977; Hargrove, Graham, Ward, Abernethy, Cunningham, and Vaughan 1981; Little 1981(b); McLaughlin 1978).'

(Purkey and Smith, 1985:357)

After discussing O'Toole's (1981) study of workplace reform, Purkey and Smith suggested that schools could develop flexible strategies for change that reflect the unique 'personality' of a school by increasing involvement of teachers and other staff members in decision-making, and expanding opportunities for collaborative planning.

Purkey and Smith stated that:

'The goal is to change the school culture; the means requires staff members to assume responsibility for school improvement, which in turn is predicated on their having the authority and support necessary to respond to the educational needs of their subjects and the programmatic demands of the school as an organisation.'

(Purkey and Smith, p. 357)

Murphy and his associates also suggested the need for structured staff development. They stated that this variable has been found to be associated with gains in school-wide, student achievement. They suggested that there are four crucial elements which separate structured from unstructured staff development:

- '(1) The staff chooses to be involved in the development activities and the entire staff participates.
- (2) The in-service activities selected are consistent with, and promote, the accomplishment of school goals, a consistency associated with district effectiveness as well.
- (3) The content and processes in the staff development activities become an integral part of school climate and activities.
- (4) There is a collegial relationship among staff in the implementation of in-service content, and teachers and administrators learn from and teach each other, share the

language and symbols from the in-service program, and plan and prepare work related to the development activity together.'
(Murphy et al., 1985:366).

2.2.3.2. Teachers as adult learners

The needs of teachers as adults, and a diverse group of learners with differing learning styles was considered by Christensen, Burke and Fessler (1983:6) who listed the general characteristics of adult learners: (i) a problem-centred orientation; (ii) preference for redefining the problem while in the process of learning; (iii) movement into learning situations through an 'experiential imperative'; (iv) acknowledgement of physical and social experiences and personality differences; (v) acknowledgement that the adult learner is judgemental, and has only so much energy to expend on projects and in ways that meet personal needs.

Members of a group will have individual learning styles. For maximum effectiveness, the structure of the learning environment should match the preferred style of learning of the participant (McCarthy, 1982:20). It is necessary to make plans flexible for adult learners and to apply adult-learning principles when planning effective professional-development activities. Wood and Thompson list four principles of adult learning that are relevant to staff-development programs.

- . Adults will commit themselves to learning something when the goals and objectives of the in-service are considered realistic and important to ... them;
- . Adults will learn, retain, and use what they perceive is relevant to their personal and professional needs;
- . Adults want to be the origins of their own learning; that is, they want to be involved in the selection of objectives, contents, activities, and assessment of their in-service education; and

- . Adults will resist situations which they believe are an attack on their competence, thus the resistance to imposed in-service topics and activities.

(Wood and Thompson, 1980:374-8)

One of the most important pieces of information that can be gleaned from this list of principles on adult learning, and from the other literature referred to, is that effective in-service training is dependent upon offering activities that learners believe they need.

Vickery (1980) and the Auchmuty Committee of Inquiry Into Teacher Education cited in Reynolds and Clark (1982), endorsed the idea of staff having ultimate responsibility for their own professional-development activities. The Karmel Report (1976) commented that:

'teachers' own experience and self-perception were an important starting point for further professional development'
(cited in France, 1981:155).

Lieberman emphasised the critical importance of this stage of planning for professional development by stating that:

'any improvement efforts in schools must begin with the concerns and needs of teachers'

(Lieberman, 1981:583),

a view endorsed by Christensen, Burke and Fessler (1983).

2.2.3.3 Personal, professional and system needs

Purkey and Smith pointed out that it was crucial for a school's staff development to be based on a developmental model (collaboratively planned), rather than the traditional, deficit model. They suggested that staff development must recognise the experience and expertise of staff members and encourage them to work together to change their school. This is more likely to be favourably received. This was also a finding of the Tasmanian evaluation of professional-

development practices (see Docker et al., 1985:22-4). Purkey and Smith further argued that the focus should not be on 'fixing' individual teachers or administrators but on teachers' expressed needs, as revealed during analysis of schools' strengths and weaknesses. [See also Fullon, Miles and Taylor, 1980; Docker et al. 1985a, Docker, 1985(b)].

Tinkler (1985:24-35) discussed the Australian movement towards professional development taking place in schools. He advocated addressing the needs of individuals and of schools for in-service staff development in more integrated ways. Tinkler mentioned the tension between the sometimes opposing views of individual needs and school needs. This has been previously discussed by Docker [1985(b):92-4].

Furthermore, Tinkler suggested that the practice of organising in-service staff development in schools gave a broadened perspective to the movement toward school improvement. It tended to dissolve the tension between the individuals' and schools' needs.

It appears from the literature that staff development in a school should be aligned to the school's goals for improvement. Some aspects, such as curriculum or grade instruction, may be better handled in small groups. Some policies, such as school discipline and assessment, may involve a whole staff. Courter and Ward suggested that staff development in a project about effective schools must be viewed as a

'process that involves entire school staffs, including the site administrators, in an ongoing, high quality effort to achieve well understood and agreed upon goals for school improvement'.

(Courter and Ward, 1983:208)

A similar methodology for blending individuals' needs with schools' needs, was adopted in some subjects in the Tasmanian development program for senior staff. Some courses valued the experience in teaching that participants brought to the subject, considered individual needs and attempted to meld these with school-focused issues (Docker, 1985(a):356-7). When a group of staff from a particular school attended, we observed that the possibility for change in the school was enhanced.

The practices reviewed in this section appear essential to successfully motivating teachers towards staff development and improving teacher performance. The following characteristics provide a framework to assist in ensuring the success of staff-development activities.

2.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF SUCCESSFUL PROFESSIONAL-DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

The evidence from the Tasmanian evaluation (Docker, 1986) suggested that, according to teachers, some types of professional-development activities are more successful than others.

Teachers believed that activities should be varied if they were to be successful. Activities and strategies they identified included:

- . work in small groups;
- . work in large groups;
- . reflection by individuals and groups;
- . sharing ideas and values by participants;
- . staff setting priorities for action;
- . the development of consensus;
- . the use of different time-modules, for example, pupil-free days, weekend seminars or workshops, free time during a

- teacher's day; and
- a thorough program for the reading of professional material.

People organising and leading these activities need skills in areas such as facilitating, communication, working with groups (perceiving group dynamics), team-work and decision-making.

In order to plan and implement more successful activities, schools would need to:

- develop a school policy with guidelines and procedures;
- state the school's priorities;
- identify needs of teachers;
- sensibly plan appropriate remedies;
- use knowledge of processes to obtain change;
- make sure the climate is supportive;
- use knowledge of what is involved in motivation;
- select leaders wisely (by expertise rather than seniority);
- create time for staff, for example, by block staff release or increasing teacher relief days; and
- allocate resources to allow the activity to be followed up and to maintain changes in teaching practice.

Naturally, the strategies used in any school would vary. It is essential that schools carefully analyse their present positions in order to determine their educational goals.

This section has outlined some of the characteristics of successful staff-development practices. It would appear that these are similar in both Australia and the United States. A further comprehensive list of staff-development practices to guide schools is available in the RPTIM model developed by Steven R. Thompson. This was developed after a study of the most successful school practices and examination of the literature concerning staff development. Most of the practices listed in this section are included. The RPTIM model is

discussed in detail in Chapter 4, and the practices are listed in Table 11 of that chapter.

2.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF GOOD OR EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS

Much has been written about the concepts of school climate and staff-development practices in the recent literature on effective schools. In this section, the literature will be examined to identify linking ideas between these two concepts and the characteristics of both school climate and staff-development practices.

The literature about effective schools began when researchers reported results of studies showing above-average achievement of students on standardised test scores. These studies led some researchers (for example, Hunter, Lezotte, and Brookover) to develop relatively simple-minded teaching formulae for improving schools. Their suggestions about staff-development practices usually related specifically to the instructional process and how the school climate could promote it. This work neglected other forms of staff development that deal with creativity, higher-order thinking skills, citizenship and developing students' social growth.

Recent research shows that schools do make a difference to students' achievement (Shoemaker and Fraser, 1981; Sweeney, 1982; Purkey and Smith, 1982; Miller, 1983; Beare, 1984; Mellor and Chapman, 1984). Starratt (1986) suggested that interest and enthusiasm in the 'effective school movement' in the United States grew out of numerous

studies, especially in urban primary schools, which showed that students' performances in tests of basic skills such as reading and mathematics were higher than might have been predicted, considering their socio-economic and racial backgrounds (Edmunds, 1980; Corcoran and Hansen, 1983; Squires, Hunt and Segars, 1984). Rutter and his associates (1979) published more elaborate findings from English secondary schools.

This summary of the literature about effective schools acknowledges that the early research was prompted by studies showing above-average achievement of students on standardised test scores. These researchers used a variety of research methodologies based on a variety of assumptions about the nature of schooling and based on various epistemological assumptions. While the numerous flaws in these research studies are acknowledged, a number are reviewed here to reinforce the notion that the characteristics associated with the terms school climate and staff-development practices are related, and are consistently evident in descriptions of schools considered to be 'effective'.

Many researchers have since studied these effective schools to look for 'characteristics' related to producing these kinds of above-the-norm scores. A review of the work of some of these authors (Caldwell (1985), Purkey and Smith (1985), Caldwell and Spinks (1986), Mellor and Chapman (1984), Corcoran and Hansen (1983), Purkey and Smith (1985), Murphy et al. (1985), and Starratt (1986), shows that characteristics associated with 'effective' or 'good' schools overlap the characteristics described in the literature about school climate and staff-development practices.

It is not the intention of this review to define or discuss the many controversies surrounding the conceptualisation of 'effectiveness' nor the substantial research showing that schools' 'effect' accounts for far less than socio-economic family background does in student achievement.

Caldwell (1985:8) noted the many critics of the 'effective school movement'. He argued that the evidence about what constitutes the 'dimensions' of a highly effective school is particularly strong, and suggested that it would be unwise to continue any management practice without taking this evidence into account. Although Purkey and Smith have also expressed major reservations about research underpinning the 'effective school movement', nevertheless they share Caldwell's view.

Purkey and Smith suggested that the 'effective school movement' was not just an educational diversion:

- (1) It emphasises that whatever else schools accomplish, their primary purpose is instructional. Success is measured by how well the student masters the knowledge or skill of that discipline.
- (2) The school provides the overall environment in which instruction occurs and learning takes place.
- (3) Schools are treated as organic units; strategies for improvement that fragment the school's population or instructional program are unlikely to be successful.

Corcoran and Hansen (1983) also provided a handy summary of the characteristics of effective schools and divided them into characteristics of organisation, management and climate. Table 1 shows organisational characteristics of effective schools, Table 2 shows management characteristics of effective schools, and Table 3 shows climatic characteristics of effective schools. The tables were cited in Starratt (1986).

TABLE 1

ORGANISATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS

1. Typical of effective schools is a high degree of consensus around clearly articulated goals. The goals help shape the allocation of time and other resources and provide focus for the daily operations of the schools.
2. In effective schools, learning time is highly valued. Efforts are made to reduce disruptions, improve scheduling, reduce student movement, reduce the number of non-academic events, increase the length of school days, and improve classroom management.
3. The formal curriculum, the curriculum that is taught and the content of tests are highly aligned in effective schools. There is careful articulation from one grade level to the next.
4. In effective schools, the staff have considerable autonomy to determine their policies and programs within the framework of district policy and to solve the problems they encounter in attempting to raise academic achievement.
5. Effective schools have high academic standards and monitor pupil performance frequently. Staff use sound assessment practices, participate in the analysis of test data, and use test data to identify program weaknesses.
6. Effective schools maintain frequent communications between the home and school. The evidence concerning the influence of parental involvement on school effectiveness is growing. It also seems self-evident that parental support is needed to create the conditions necessary for school effectiveness and that parental involvement in their own children's academic work is essential to success.

TABLE 2

MANAGEMENT CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS

1. The principals are assertive leaders; they set clear goals and provide direction to their staff. They offer a vision for the school based upon values which can be, and are, publicly articulated.
2. The principals are achievement-oriented. They stress academics; their personal use of time and their allocation of resources and rewards reflects this priority. Their goals tend to be expressed in terms of student learning.

3. The principals emphasise evaluation of the school and its programs; they hold the staff accountable for results. They lead a process of problem identification and analysis to improve the performance of the school.
4. The principals are active supervisors, spending considerable time in classrooms and in discussions with staff about curriculum and instruction. Their expertise in the technical processes of schooling is respected by the staff.
5. The principals respect the professionalism of their staff members. Strong accountability is balanced by optimal autonomy for the teaching staff. They maintain effective communications with staff and provide frequent feedback to teachers.
6. The principals provide for staff participation in the development of school policies and plans, the design and implementation of staff development, and other decisions affecting work in the school. They reward efforts of teachers to work together co-operatively.

TABLE 3

CLIMATE CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS

1. High expectations of success and school-wide recognition of academic achievement and progress are attributes of effective schools. High expectations extend to effort and co-operation as well as to performance. School-wide recognition may take the form of honors, ceremonies, publications, announcements, rewards, posters, and other means of demonstrating the importance of achievement. The school staff take visible pride in the academic accomplishment of their students.
2. Order, discipline, and a business-like atmosphere are features of effective schools. Rules are fairly enforced and discipline procedures are uniform throughout the school. The resulting sense of security and order builds responsibility and a sense of pride.
3. Effective schools have a co-operative and friendly atmosphere. Administration and staff work closely together and there is a strong sense of community. Teachers share materials and talk to each other frequently about curriculum and instruction. There is low turnover and the resulting stability builds commitment to school goals and high levels of trust, co-operation and motivation.
4. The physical facilities may not be new or modern but they are safe and clean. And they provide adequate work space. Attractive and pleasant working conditions contribute to higher levels of staff and student motivation and achievement.

5. The faculty of effective schools take responsibility for the outcomes of the educational programs and treat poor results as problems to be solved.

(Tables 1, 2, and 3 from: Thomas B. Corcoran and Barbara J. Hansen, The Quest for Excellence: Making Public Schools More Effective, (Trenton: New Jersey School Boards Association, Trenton, 1983, pp. 8-10.)

Mellor and Chapman (1984) examined factors associated with school differences in the three separate studies: Her Majesty's Inspectorate's study (1977) which looked at the question of 'what makes a good school', Michael Rutter and his associates' study of secondary schools in London (1978) and Mellor and Chapman's study of nine Victorian secondary schools.

Each of these studies looked at 'good', 'outstanding' or 'effective' schools. Mellor and Chapman developed a synthesis of factors that may be associated with school effectiveness. In another Australian study, Caldwell (ERASP, 1986:16-17) developed forty-three general criteria for determining effective schools. Of these fourteen related to leadership and decision-making. Twenty related to climate. Mellor and Chapman's synthesis (1984:32) is in accord with Caldwell and Spinks's list of characteristics. Their lists include staff development characteristics in with climate characteristics.

Purkey and Smith summarised the research on effective schools in the following terms:

'The most persuasive research suggests that student academic performance is strongly affected by school culture ... composed of values, norms, and roles existing within institutionally distinct structures of governance, communication, educational practices and policies, and so on. Successful schools are found to have cultures

that produce a climate or "ethos" conducive to teaching and learning ... (which) will vary, in part in response to the composition of the staff and student body and to the environment in which the school exists, leaving each school with a unique climate or "personality" ... Nevertheless, academically effective schools are likely to possess a cluster of similar characteristics that encourage and promote student achievement'.

(Purkey and Smith, 1985:356-7)

Recent writers have concentrated upon describing the characteristics of 'effective' or 'good' schools. Edmunds (1982) initially provided the most widely quoted list of characteristics for school effectiveness. Many writers have since extended this, or independently produced similar lists of characteristics. Generally these characteristics include:

- . clarity of purpose (clearly understood goals);
- . academic emphasis;
- . a planned, balanced and organised curriculum;
- . good leadership qualities exhibited by senior staff;
- . a supportive and stable school climate for teachers and students alike;
- . recognition of achievement and of quality work;
- . high expectations of students' and teachers' performances;
- . a planned staff-development program;
- . commitment, cohesiveness, coherence, and harmony among teachers;
- . high morale of teachers and students;
- . co-operative interpersonal relationships;
- . meaningful involvement by students;
- . students accepting responsibility;
- . a safe and orderly environment;
- . a positive school community, and
- . collaborative and participatory decision-making.

Again it is emphasised that this literature about effective schools was reviewed to establish and reinforce links between the two concepts school climate and staff-development practices.

Many writers have used different terms to describe these characteristics, as indicated below:

- . Murphy et al. (1985) use the terms 'functions' and

- 'variables'.
- . Purkey and Smith (1983), Corcoran and Hansen (1983) and Starratt (1986) use the term 'characteristics'.
- . Edmunds (1982) and Caldwell et al. (1986) use the terms 'criteria' and 'characteristics'.
- . Mellor and Chapman (1984) use the terms 'factors' and 'attributes'.
- . Lightfoot (1983) uses the terms 'elements' and 'indicators'.
- . Mulford (1986) uses the terms 'indicators' and 'factors'.

For the sake of simplicity, the term 'characteristics' has been used in this thesis to describe the properties of 'effective' or 'good' schools. As many of these characteristics relate to school climate, the same term has been used for the purposes of discussion throughout the thesis.

2.4.1 Effective schools: conceptual frameworks and models

Murphy et al. (1985:361) pointed out that in the history of the 'school effectiveness movement' from the 1960s to the early 1980s, three distinct but overlapping phases could be noted: factor specification, conceptual framework development, and model building. With this taxonomy, they attempted to identify the characteristics of effective schools and to classify the most significant of these factors. The studies by Mellor and Chapman, Caldwell (ERASP), and Corcoran and Hansen, began with delineations of the characteristics of effectiveness.

Murphy et al. developed a conceptual framework for effective schools, as outlined in Figure 3.

Important activities in this phase of research on effectiveness included identifying important functions of effectiveness characteristics and grouping these functions into coherent patterns for program development and policy action.

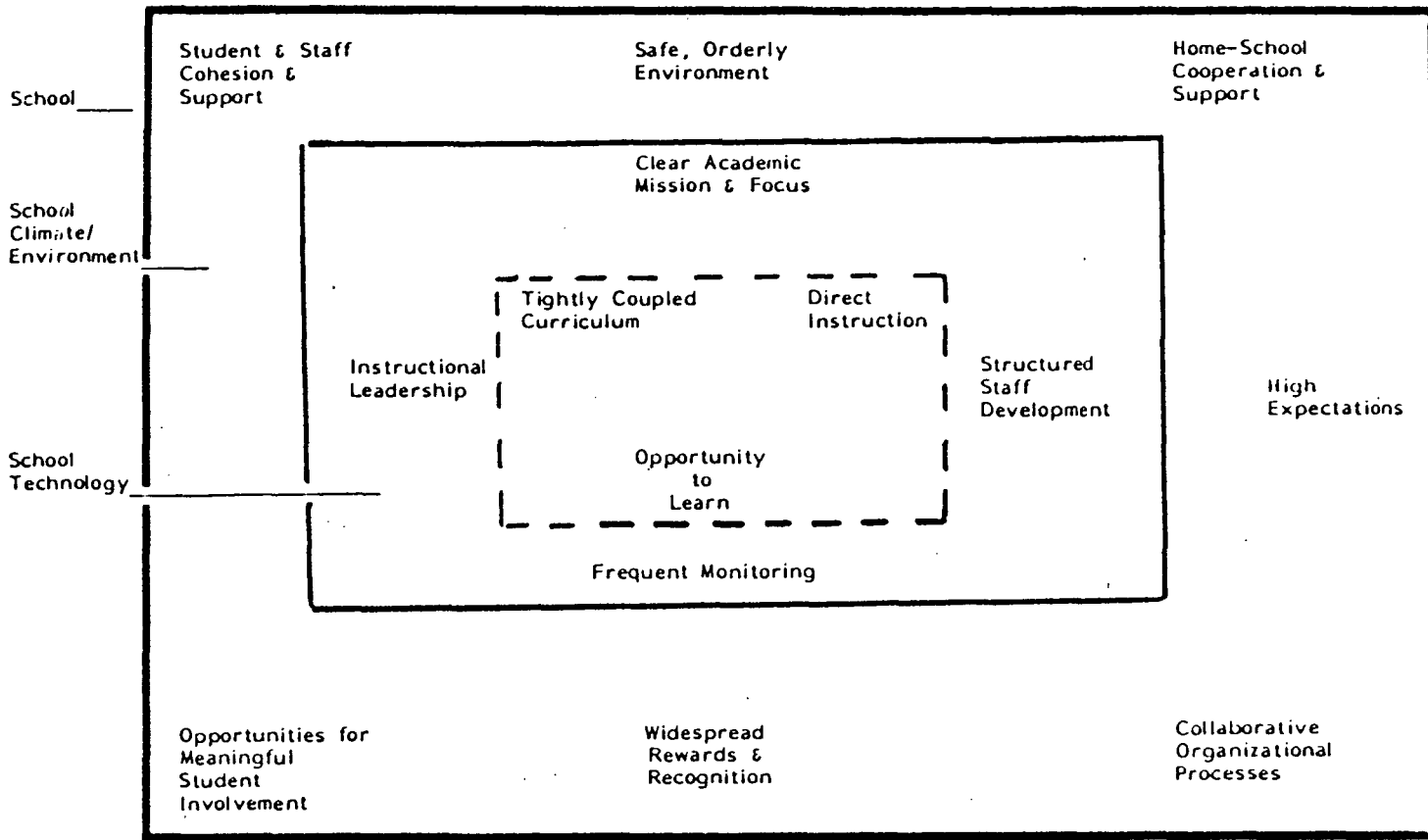
The conceptual framework suggested by Murphy et al. in Figure 3, consists of fourteen variables that tell us what is currently known of school effectiveness, in terms of content and important organisational norms, structures needed to implement them, and processes to facilitate their implementation. Murphy and his associates (p. 362) constructed the framework illustrating these variables in a way that shows the relationship between the environment and technology of a school. (Murphy et al. regarded the environment as being the school climate, and the technology as being the instructional practices and the curriculum of the school.) Their variables drew on research about classroom effectiveness and school effectiveness. They believed these two related areas were too often treated independently of each other.

The three variables in Murphy et al.'s inner box, as outlined in Figure 3, were subsumed under the heading of 'organising for curriculum and instruction'. The four variables in the middle box were labelled 'supporting curriculum and instruction'. The variables in the outer box related to school climate and these were subdivided into academic climate and social climate. Murphy and his associates stated that:

'norms, processes and structures in the academic climate directly promote quality instruction and improved student performance. Social climate norms, processes and structures indirectly

FIGURE 3

SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK



(Murphy, Weil, Hallinger, Mitman, 1985:363)

facilitate student learning by making the school and its activities important to individuals'.

(Murphy et al., 1985:366)

Purkey and Smith also brought together the dimensions of research about school effectiveness and they had sufficient confidence 'to suggest a model for creating an effective school' (Purkey and Smith, 1985:357-359).

They stated that their model

'integrates the descriptive characteristics of effective schools with what we know about innovation, implementation, organisational theory, and workplace reform elsewhere'

(Purkey and Smith, 357-8).

In Figure 4, the Purkey and Smith model listed those characteristics in Group A that may be achieved relatively quickly. Purkey and Smith believed that these characteristics provide the foundation or context for the development of the characteristics listed in Group B. The characteristics in Group B are necessary if a school culture is to be developed. Collaborative planning and collegial relationships encourage the kind of intellectual sharing that can lead to consensus of staff, and promote feelings of unity and commonality among staff. Such a sense of community requires clear goals, commonly shared high expectations, and order and discipline in a school. The implications for professional development in these areas and for all involved in school improvement programs are apparent.

FIGURE 4

A MODEL FOR CREATING AN EFFECTIVE SCHOOL	
<u>Group A: Characteristics that can be achieved relatively quickly, providing a foundation for Group B</u>	
1. School-site management and democratic decision-making.	6. Parental involvement and support.
2. Leadership.	7. School-wide recognition of academic success.
3. Staff stability.	8. Maximised learning time.
4. Curriculum articulation and organisation.	9. System support.
5. Staff development.	

Group B: Characteristics that provide a context
for building school culture, thus achieving effectiveness

- | | |
|---|--|
| 10. Collaborative planning and collegial relationships. | 12. Clear goals and high expectations commonly shared. |
| 11. Sense of community. | 13. Order and discipline. |

(Purkey and Smith, 1985:358-9)

Both models of school effectiveness reviewed clearly establish the crucial role of characteristics of school climate and staff development.

2.4.2 Leadership in effective schools

One characteristic of effective schools that is constantly mentioned in the literature is leadership. Following their review of the research, Purkey and Smith (1982), concluded that strong leadership by the principal or another staff member emerged as a major factor differentiating effective from ineffective schools. Clark et al. (1980) reached a similar conclusion following their review of the research. More recently, Purkey and Smith stated that:

'Though we are suspicious of the "great principal" theory, strong leadership from administrators, teachers or integrated teams of both is necessary to initiate and maintain the improvement process.'

(Purkey and Smith, 1985:358)

Caldwell and Misko pointed out that the following characteristics of principals were most frequently selected by people providing nominations of highly effective schools.

'The school has a principal who:

- . is responsive to and supportive of the needs of teachers;
- . establishes effective relationships with the Education Department, community, teachers and students;
- . ensures that resources are allocated in a manner consistent with educational needs;
- . enables the sharing of duties and resources to occur in an efficient manner;
- . has a high level of awareness of what is happening in the school;
- . encourages staff involvement in professional development programs and makes use of the skills teachers acquire in these programs;
- . is concerned with his/her own professional development; and
- . ensures that a continual review of the school program occurs and that progress toward goals is evaluated.'

(Caldwell and Misko, 1984:29-59)

Caldwell (1985) related attributes found in effective schools to those found in companies such as those described by Peters and Waterman (1982). Similar findings about the role of symbols, culture and purpose were documented.

A study by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (1984) of principals of effective schools, focused on the instructional leadership of the principal. The five common characteristics that emerged were summarised by Starratt.

- '(1) Vision: understanding not only what their school is but what it can be, they indicate a direction for the school and impart this to colleagues.
- (2) Resourcefulness: they are achievers. Not often overcome by bureaucratic setbacks, they get results from their own ingenious and assertive efforts.
- (3) Instructional support: they readily obtain instructional materials for teachers and possess the skills needed to provide classroom assistance and teacher improvement.
- (4) Participative: they keep communication open, empower their staff, reorganise and reward quality, and keep the organisation simple but positive.
- (5) Monitoring: they not only know the facts and figures for scholastic achievement in their school, but have first-hand knowledge of their teachers and students in action. Using this information, they set new priorities and offer valuable feedback.'

(Starratt, 1986:2)

Most writers concur that a leader wishing to instil a vision to develop a more effective school, must pay attention to both school climate and staff-development practices. Dull (1981:20) pointed out that leaders need to develop a school climate that will allow initiative and co-operation to flourish for instructional improvement.

Sergiovanni and Starratt noted that the need for an emphasis upon organisational climate was essential. They stated that:

'A healthy climate frees supervisor and teacher to work more fully on educational matters ... it permits the supervisor to take a direct lead in educational matters when appropriate, but draws out the leadership talents of others as well. Here leadership becomes a process rather than a set of prerogatives associated with the supervisor's role'.

(Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1979:70)

Furthermore, Dull commented that supervision of staff development by school leaders is the most important ingredient in school organisation.

'The quality of learning is directly, though not solely, related to the quality of instruction. It follows, then, that supervisors must influence teachers in order to influence instruction.'

(Dull, 1981:110)

Duke, when linking leadership functions to instructional effectiveness (1982), also clearly delineated staff development as one of the key leadership functions.

In Chapter 8, links will also be made between these two concepts and the literature about school improvement. A comparison between the literature about effective schools and that of school improvement is included again to demonstrate the overlapping characteristics associated with the literature about school climate and staff-development practices.

A central argument of this thesis is that teachers in most schools can be motivated to improve school climate and staff-development practices, thereby improving their schools and the effectiveness of these schools. The characteristics of these two concepts identified in the literature are alterable and can be improved. In effect, the second purpose of this study is to develop strategies for motivating teachers to improve their school climate and staff-development practices, thereby improving their schools and making them more efficient.

2.5 AN HYPOTHESISED 'THEORY' TO ACCOUNT FOR THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SCHOOL CLIMATE AND STAFF-DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES

It is helpful before proceeding to the conceptual framework and research design to reflect on the relationship between school climate and staff-development practices and to suggest a theoretical explanation for that relationship. Sergiovanni and Starratt's (1983) notion of an educational platform is offered as a unifying concept in this thesis. An educational platform includes the beliefs, opinions, values, and attitudes held by that leader. From the discussion of the characteristics of school climate and staff-development practices in this chapter and their perceived importance in 'good' or 'effective' schools, it would appear that these two areas should be included in any leader's educational platform. This is further reinforced in the later review of the school improvement literature.

On the basis of this review of the literature the author would argue that a hypothetical 'good' school is likely to have a leader or leaders who value both a good climate and good staff-development practices. Elements of an educational platform of these leaders might include the following:

A view of students' learning with beliefs that:

- . students enter school with different knowledge, skills and attitudes;
- . the school can make a difference in a child's growth;
- . student's individual growth needs will always be considered;
- . students will be encouraged to become active and independent learners;
- . opportunities for inquiry based and collegial (peer) learning are provided; and
- . citizenship and social education will be studied where possible in the context of the community.

The educational programs including such attributes as:

- . providing a planned and balanced curriculum;
- . encompassing individual student growth and needs;
- . encouraging citizenship and social education; and
- . providing opportunities for creative and higher order thinking skills for all students.

Values and beliefs pervading the daily life of the school, including:

- . the school being considered a learning community;
- . a sense of community and purpose;
- . collaborative planning among the school community participants of teachers, students and parents;
- . clearly articulated learning goals and high expectations commonly shared;
- . school-wide recognition of success;
- . order and discipline;
- . a caring attitude of not giving up on any student;
- . opportunities for meaningful involvement of students;
- . home-school co-operation and support; and
- . continual monitoring of the school program involving teachers.

A view of teachers as:

- . the central actors in the educational process;
- . adult learners;
- . generally competent or even gifted adults;
- . possessing initiative, and being autonomous;
- . having commitment to school life and policies;
- . smart, inspired people who have something to teach;
- . providing exciting and imaginative learning tasks;
- . stimulators of children's learning;
- . people possessing a fearless and emphatic regard for students;
- . critical members of the school community; and
- . people striving for excellence in their classroom performance.

With such an educational platform including some or all of the attributes of this hypothetical 'good' school, a principal would have to give special consideration to many of the characteristics of school climate and staff-development practices. To instil such an educational platform or vision of a 'good' school would involve staff development as an essential ingredient. As it would also involve change, aspects of school climate would be critical. The degree to which the principal would focus on each of these areas would depend on such considerations as the length of time the principal had been in the school, current perceptions of the 'platform' by the members of the school community and the amount of change deemed necessary. What is clearly established from the literature review is that most of the characteristics listed above are also listed in the literature about school climate and staff development.

This educational platform is based on a set of values of how people relate and work together, how learning takes place for students and staff, and on beliefs about what motivates staff and how they grow within the teaching profession. It is about creating a caring environment where the needs of individuals are recognised and supported, where people are respected for the contribution they can make, and about providing encouragement and freedom to take risks and learn. A leader who nurtures these values would also be philosophically disposed towards encouraging openness of staff to professional development. If a leader fosters characteristics at the

positive end of school climate, this analysis suggests that he or she will also foster the positive attributes of staff development.

This platform is further supported by Herzberg's (1966) two factor theory of motivation. Herzberg stated that certain 'maintenance' factors of organisational climate, physical factors, type of supervision, job security, attitudes and policies of administration, in themselves won't motivate teachers. Minimal levels of these factors however must be maintained if dissatisfaction is to be avoided. Herzberg's research showed motivation appears to arise from other conditions such as a teacher's perception of achievement, recognition, the challenge of the work itself, responsibility, personal or professional growth. These 'motivators' are associated with job satisfaction and are linked to a good staff-development programme and aspects of school climate reviewed in this chapter.

To develop this educational platform the principal would need to consider many of the following aspects of school climate. They are important not only because they are listed as school climate characteristics in this review of the literature, but also because the commonsense and practice of working with people tells us that attention must always be paid to relationships among staff and students, to needs of personnel in the school, and to the general school environment, if change or continual progress towards a notion of a 'good' school is to be made.

Criteria for a healthy school climate

Developing relationships within the school community would include:

- opportunities for meaningful involvement in planning and decision making for all parties in the school community;

- . establishment of collaborative organisational processes;
- . a stable staff with a strong sense of community;
- . high levels of trust and open communications;
- . a co-operative and friendly atmosphere;
- . home-school co-operation and support;
- . high levels of cohesiveness and team spirit among students and teachers;
- . perceptions of positive support held by teachers and students;
- . praise, widespread rewards and recognition for good work; and
- . sharing of leadership functions by the administrative team.

Developing personnel within the school would involve:

- . placing high expectations on, and responsibility for, student learning;
- . involving staff in the development of the school mission and goals;
- . organising and articulating a rich school curriculum;
- . providing staff with the responsibility for allocating resources to approved learning goals;
- . respecting the professionalism of staff members;
- . encouraging teachers to continually aspire for quality in their work;
- . modelling good conduct, work and behaviour;
- . providing a sense of success and achievement;
- . carefully attending to their needs;
- . valuing and maximising learning time; and
- . sharing of duties and resources in an efficient manner.

Maintaining necessary school practices and procedures, while introducing some changes, would mean providing:

- . clear expectations of teachers about daily routines;
- . a mission or sense of purpose;
- . a stable and well-defined curriculum;
- . a sustained and viable ideological stance;
- . strong, consistent and inspired leadership;
- . clear and achievable objectives;
- . a schoolwide emphasis on basic and higher order skills;
- . time for staff to learn, talk and plan as individuals and as members of a group;
- . time for, and articulation of, pastoral care and citizenship goals;
- . uniform procedures for implementing school policy in areas such as attendance, discipline and homework procedures for staff;
- . respect for the property of others;
- . effective communication for staff;
- . considerable feedback to staff on acceptable performance;
- . continual review of school programs;
- . encouragement and support for teachers to innovate exciting and challenging learning environments;
- . encouragement of norms of collegiality and experimentation;
- . a safe and orderly environment;
- . clean, pleasant and safe physical conditions;
- . adequate work space and access to appropriate technology; and
- . appropriate learning resources

In almost all of these characteristics, appropriate staff-development practices and support are essential if change or development is to occur. It is therefore impossible to separate school climate considerations from those of staff development. It is argued that high levels of climate require high levels of staff development activity.

With such a platform, the principal would not view a school as a static organisation where the motions of learning are taking place, and staff have stopped growing in exploring their understandings of the world or in pursuing more intense human experiences. Rather, the vision would be of a school striving for excellence in all its endeavours, of community debate about beliefs, attitudes and values in education, of teachers as professionals continually questioning the current practices in education and striving to improve their personal performance. It would be a school committed to the intrinsic dynamism of human growth. Clearly in such an organisation, factors of school climate and staff development are interwoven.

Such a school would be viewed as a dynamic organisation. If staff development was not viewed as a top priority, the organisation could not grow and develop. If attention was not paid to most aspects of school climate listed above, teachers would not be motivated to strive for excellence in their endeavours. It is therefore argued from the evidence provided in this review of the literature that characteristics of school climate and staff development are essential to creating a 'good' school. Further, there is a relationship between the characteristics of these two terms. A principal could not develop the notion of a 'good' school without considering characteristics of school climate and staff-development practices. The dynamics and processes of change will be further discussed in the review of school improvement literature in Chapter 8.

An empirical research study has been designed to check the relationship established in this review and this is discussed in Chapters 4 to 7.

2.6 CONCLUSION

School climate and staff-development practices are two important concepts identified in the literature of effective schooling and school improvement by most researchers. These two concepts include many of the characteristics of effective schools. Research about the school climate was a 'stepchild' of research about organisational climate and the movement for effective schooling. There are many characteristics that combine and interact with other variables to form the school climate and many variables constantly associated with school climate have been related to higher attainment of students. Most researchers agree that outcomes stem from the combined characteristics of interacting variables, but there is a difficulty in choosing the variables that best define school climate.

Recent writers reviewed in this chapter, such as Purkey and Smith, and Murphy et al., have developed conceptual frameworks or models for developing more effective schools on the basis of recent research from the movement for effective schooling, school climate, and associated management theory.

They give consideration to certain characteristics including:

- . the leadership;
- . the curriculum focus;

- . democratic and collaborative decision-making;
- . high expectations;
- . the allocation of resources;
- . recognition and rewards;
- . the involvement of students and the community;
- . a clear mission or focus;
- . shared understandings;
- . an orderly and safe environment;
- . the best use of learning time;
- . the use of evaluation procedures;
- . staff support; and
- . collegial relationships.

Staff development, broadly defined, plays a crucial role in all of these factors and in the processes employed for any efforts towards the improvement of schools. Anderson et al. (1979) stated that staff development offers one of the most promising roads to the improvement of instruction.

The review of the characteristics associated with 'effective' or 'good' schools, and the concepts school climate and staff-development practices has indicated a close relationship between:

- (1) a positive school climate; and
- (2) provision of staff-development.

This was supported by the results of the research conducted in the evaluation of Tasmanian schools discussed in the following chapters of this thesis. The review of the literature about school improvement in

Chapter 8 reinforces the importance of many of the issues discussed in this chapter. The literature about school improvement deals more with the processes and strategies of becoming an effective school than with the characteristics associated with effective schools. These processes and strategies are aimed at making the school become better or more effective. The literature about the movement for school effectiveness overlaps with that about the movement for school improvement and both bodies of research are compared in Chapter 8.

This review has indicated through examination of numerous research studies that positive school climates and staff-development practices are invariably listed as characteristics of 'good' schools. Numerous characteristics of school climates and staff-development practices have been identified. In addition, strategies and processes for constructing a positive school climate are examined. On the basis that a good school climate is necessary if positive change is to occur in schools, and that these characteristics, and the processes and strategies to assist school improvement (see Chapter 8) are well documented, the author argues that it must be possible to construct a positive, enduring school climate. This argument will be developed throughout the thesis.

A unifying 'theory' has been hypothesised that might explain the linkage between the concepts of school climate and staff-development practices. This was presented in the form of an educational platform of a hypothetical 'good' school using the ideas and characteristics reviewed in this chapter. Here it was argued that to develop a 'good' school high levels of positive school climate would be accompanied by good staff-development practices.

Chapter 3 outlines in tabulated form, the characteristics of school climate and staff-development practices mentioned in the research reviewed. A conceptually based approach to research for improving school climate and staff-development practices is developed.

CHAPTER 3

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR INVESTIGATION

3.1 EXPLANATION OF THE METHOD FOR DEVELOPING THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The purpose of this chapter is to develop a conceptual framework for the study from the literature reviewed in the previous chapter. A reading of that chapter indicates that the amount of literature and references in the areas of school climate, staff-development practices, effective schools, leadership and school improvement (Chapter 8), is massive. The characteristics of these terms mentioned in each area have many similarities.

In this chapter, research in the literature about studying and conceptualising human environments, and instruments for assessing the school environment (climate) are discussed. This is followed by a listing of the characteristics and strategies that are identified in the literature with 'good' or 'effective' schools. A similar review of the characteristics of 'good' or 'effective' schools was conducted by the author in 1984. As a result of this review the choice of instruments was made for this study. This involved the choice of Moos's work environment scale (WES) and the Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson (RPTIM) model of staff-development practices.

The literature review in Chapter 2 of this study included recent studies in the areas of school climate, and staff-development practices, effective schools and leadership. The characteristics

identified in these studies are analysed and tabulated according to the rubric suggested by Moos for conceptualising human environments. This is outlined in Chapter 4, Table 4. Also, the dynamics and strategies, suggested in the literature on staff development and effective schools (Chapter 2) and school improvement (Chapter 8), have been treated in a similar manner. They were analysed and tabulated under the rubric suggested by Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson (1982(a)) in their RPTIM model of staff- development practices. The practices which constitute the RPTIM model are listed in Chapter 4, Table 11. Descriptions of the frameworks for both the WES and RPTIM surveys are described in detail in Chapter 4.

3.2 STUDYING HUMAN ENVIRONMENTS

It has long been recognised that the environment exerts considerable influence on human behaviour. In early works in psychology, Lewin (1935, 1936) and Murray (1938) presented theoretical points of view that recognised both the environment and its interaction with people's personal characteristics as powerful determinants of human behaviour. Lewin's classic definition of behaviour expressed in the formula $B=f(P,E)$ was first enunciated largely for didactic reasons, to stress the need for new research strategies in which behaviour is considered a function of person and environment (Stern, 1961). Lewin considered that to understand and predict psychological behaviour (B), one has to determine for every kind of psychological event, the momentary structure and state of the person (P) and the psychological environment (E).

Lewin's approach was to stress the importance of both situational (environmental) and personal variables as joint determinants of behaviour. Murray (1938) concurred that behaviour is influenced by both personality and the external environment. Stern (1970) extended the ideas formulated by Murray and developed a theory of person-environment congruence in which complementary combinations of personal needs and environmental press enhance outcomes for students.

Over the last decade or so, researchers in several countries have shown increasing interest in conceptualising, assessing and investigating a wide range of human milieux. Stern (1970), in a study of college environments, regarded the psychological environment as a complex of stimuli that press upon the individual and to which the individual's behaviour constitutes a response. Marjoribanks (1979, 1980) examined the environments of families and used a model in which a person is surrounded by other environmental influences. Proshansky, Ittelson and Rivlin (1970) were concerned with physical environments and dealt with the relationship between behaviour and physical environment. Moos (1974(a)) discussed the critical impact of treatment environments on patients and staff in psychiatric hospitals and subsequently examined the effect of correctional and community environments on human functioning (Moos, 1975).

Attempts to categorise the human environment by Tagiuri (1968), Moos (1974), Insel and Moos (1974) have been mentioned in the review of the literature (Section 2.22).

3.3 Conceptualising and measuring human environments (climates)

Three characteristic methods for conceptualising and measuring human environments have been delineated by Moos (Insel and Moos, 1974; Moos, 1974). These are dimensions of organisational structure (in which behaviour in an environment is influenced by structural dimensions such as size of school, staffing ratios, etc.), personal characteristics of milieu inhabitants (in which the characteristics of the environment are assumed to depend on the nature of its members' personalities, intelligence levels, etc.), and psycho-social characteristics and organisational climate (which involve both psychological and social dimensions of an environment, as perceived by insiders or outsiders during interaction between people and their milieux). It is this third approach to measuring environment that the Work Environment Scale (WES) uses and that is discussed in detail in later chapters. However, the previous information has served to indicate that this is only one of several approaches to studying human environments.

Moos suggested that three general categories can be used in conceptualising the individual dimensions that characterise diverse psycho-social environments. These dimensions are:

Relationships (e.g. involvement, peer cohesion, staff support), the nature and intensity of personal relationships within the environment, the extent to which people are involved in the environment and the extent to which they support and help each other;

Personal development (e.g. autonomy, task orientation), the ways in which personal growth and self-enhancement tend to occur; and

System maintenance and system change (e.g. work pressure, clarity, control, innovation and physical comfort), the extent to which the environment is orderly, clear in expectations, maintains control, and is responsive to change.

Moos (1974) has found that these three categories can be used in conceptualising the individual dimensions of diverse psycho-social environments. This finding has emerged from Moos's work in a variety of environments including hospital wards, school classrooms, prisons, military companies, university residences, and work milieux.

An important conclusion reached by Moos (1974) is that, at minimum, all three dimensions must be assessed to provide an adequate and reasonably complete picture of the environment. This was recognised in the initial development of WES described in Chapter 4. The examples, listed for each dimension above, are termed 'sub-scales' in Moos's conceptualisation. A full description of the sub-scales of WES is outlined in Table 4. The same categories were used to 'loosely' organise the characteristics of a 'good' school in the unifying theory suggested for this thesis on pages 65 and 66.

3.3.1 Instruments for assessing the school environment (climate)

Fisher, Docker and Fraser (1986) reviewed instruments used for assessing school environment and included appropriate statistical information. An attempt was made to show how the scales contained in several existing instruments, listed below, could be classified

according to Moos's scheme. Those reviewed were:

- . Coughlan (1966, 1969) - School Survey.
- . Hoyle (1976) - Learning Climate Inventory (LCI).
- . Pace and Stern (1958) - College Characteristics Index (CCI).
- . Stern (1961) - High School Characteristics Index (HSCI).
- . McDill, Rigsby, and Meyers (1969) - (CCI and HSCI).
- . Pace (1969) - College and University Environment Scales (CUES).
- . Paterson, Centra, Hartnett and Linn's (1970) - Institutional Functioning Inventory (IFI).
- . Fraser and Rentoul (1982), Rentoul and Fraser (1983) - School-Level Environment Questionnaire (SLEQ).
- . Pyper et al. (1981) - Seven Dimensions of School Climate.
- . Epstein and McPartland (1976); Epstein (1981) - The Quality of School Life Scale (QSL).
- . Brookover and Schweitzer (1975) and Brookover et al. (1978) - Study on Perceptions of School Environment.
- . Halpin and Croft's (1963) - Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ).
- . Finlayson (1973) in England and Deer (1980) in Australia have used the OCDQ as a basis for the development of some new factor-analytic school environment scales.

(Fisher, Docker and Fraser, 1986:24-27)

This review indicated the number of instruments available and the variation in characteristics measured. Perhaps the most comprehensive instrument available for school use is the WES survey developed by Moos.

3.3.2 Selection of instruments

3.3.2.1 The WES survey

The review discussed in the previous section indicated that there were a number of instruments available and a variation in characteristics measured. The review also indicated that the most comprehensive instrument available for school use is the WES survey developed by Moos. One reason for the adoption of the WES survey in this study included familiarity, as previous trialling of the instrument has been completed in Australian schools. Another was that it had simplicity, face validity (reported in Chapter 4) and economy, in that teachers take only ten to fifteen minutes to respond to all ten sub-scales. In addition, it measured 'actual' and 'preferred' perceptions of teachers to all sub-scales.

3.3.2.2 The RPTIM survey

Following a literature review of staff-development practices, a number of characteristics and strategies were identified. Few instruments were found that were comprehensive. A recent model had been developed in the United States by Steven R. Thompson. Wood et al. describe this model as:

'a definite attempt to describe a research-based process for designing in-service education that is both systematic and comprehensive.'

(Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson, 1982(a):28)

The model indeed gave a comprehensive listing of the characteristics and strategies identified in the literature review in

Chapter 2. In addition, the RPTIM survey had previously been used in South Australia, had face validity (reported in Chapter 4) and economy, in that teachers take only approximately fifteen minutes to respond to the survey. In addition, it was based upon ten basic assumptions or beliefs that are grounded in the research literature. Again, like the WES survey, it measured teachers' perceptions of 'what exists' and 'what should be'. These were equated with the WES survey description of 'actual' and 'preferred' in this study to allow comparisons of teachers' perceptions in both surveys.

In addition, from the intensive case studies examining professional-development practices in schools, other characteristics, practices and strategies could be documented, and used as supporting evidence of teacher perceptions.

Full descriptions of both instruments are provided in the next chapter.

3.3.3 How the characteristics and strategies were tabulated according to the format of the WES and RPTIM surveys

In this chapter the characteristics listed and tabulated below only refer to the references discussed in literature review in Chapter 2, school improvement (Chapter 8), and from the Report of the Tasmanian evaluation of professional development practices. A summary of the recommendations of this report is included in Appendix 3. The characteristics listed in the following tables are organised under the

rubric of Moos's scheme. In addition, the characteristics measured by Moos in the work-environment scale are indicated by the groupings of the questions for each scale in Appendix 4. This allows the reader to make a comparison between the characteristics suggested by researchers and developed in the classification in this chapter, with the characteristics measured in the questions of each sub-scale in the work-environment scale instrument.

As writers of the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 did not take into account classroom environments, some areas, such as physical comfort and student involvement, are not as fully referenced. Furthermore, some characteristics are more difficult to classify within a particular dimension or sub-scale. For example, the term 'collaborative planning' could be listed under each of the sub-scales of involvement, peer cohesion or innovation. Likewise, 'involvement in decision-making' could be listed under each of the sub-scales of involvement, peer cohesion, or clarity. In addition, writers of the literature stress the importance of involvement by parents and the wider community. Since the work-environment scale was developed by Moos to assess any work environment, it did not recognise such factors as students and parents. In this conceptual framework involvement of parents and the community was included under the innovation sub-scale. In such cases, these terms have been listed in the sub-scale deemed by the author to be the most appropriate. Furthermore, many references in the literature refer to 'teachers' and some to 'students'. Such references in the literature related to students in schools have been included in the tables below.

3.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF SCHOOL CLIMATE (listed according to the model developed by Moos for conceptualising human environments)

Each sub-scale and descriptor of the sub-scale as defined by Moos is outlined below. These descriptors have been adapted for specific use in schools.

3.4.1 The relationships dimension

INVOLVEMENT - Involvement is the extent to which teachers are concerned about and committed to their jobs. (Students to their school work.)

Statements by researchers writing about effective schools are listed below. They indicate some ways of achieving or improving the degree of involvement of staff by ensuring that:

- | | |
|---|-----------------------------------|
| . the environment is exciting and challenging for students and teachers; | (Caldwell and Spinks) |
| . the atmosphere is co-operative and friendly; | (Corcoran and Hansen) |
| . activities are shared between pupils and staff; | (Rutter et al.) |
| . there are opportunities for meaningful student involvement; | (Murphy et al.) |
| . there are collaborative organisational processes, such as open communications and shared decision-making; | (Murphy et al.) |
| . democratic decision-making occurs; | (Purkey and Smith) |
| . collaborative and collegial relationships are established; | (Purkey and Smith) |
| . there is collaborative management; | (Caldwell and Spinks) |
| . a high morale is established amongst students (or teachers); | (Caldwell and Spinks) |
| . there is a low absentee rate among students (or teachers); | (Caldwell and Spinks) |
| . there are few applications for student (or teacher) transfer; | (Caldwell and Spinks) |
| . there is a strong commitment to learning in the school; and | (Caldwell and Spinks) |
| . there is a strong sense of community. | (Corcoran and
Hansen; Mulford) |

Staff-development activities can assist the development of staff (or student) involvement in the school by:

- | | |
|--|-----------------------|
| . ensuring efforts are directed towards influencing the entire school culture through a strategy involving collaborative planning, shared decision-making, and collegial work in an atmosphere friendly to experimentation and evaluation; | (Purkey and Smith) |
| . generating enthusiasm for joint work on common goals; | (Farrar) |
| . making sure that goals and objectives are perceived to be important to teachers so that commitment is obtained; | (Wood and Thompson) |
| . allowing teachers and administrators to learn from each other, sharing language and symbols from these activities and planning and preparing work related to the development together; and | (Murphy et al.) |
| . enabling 'shared talk', joint preparation, informing other teachers, reporting back to staff, interschool joint preparation, and social contact. | (Duignan and Johnson) |

PEER COHESION - Peer cohesion is the extent to which teachers (students) are friendly and supportive of each other.

Statements by researchers writing about effective schools are listed below. They indicate some ways for achieving peer cohesion by:

- . developing a sense of continuity; (Mellor and Chapman)
- . improving commitment and cohesiveness; (Mellor and Chapman)
- . developing harmony and coherence; (Rutter et al.)
- . ensuring that there is a high level of team spirit among teachers; (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . assisting collaborative planning and the building of consensus; (Purkey and Smith)
- . helping the principal, teachers and students to demonstrate commitment and loyalty to school goals and values; (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . maintaining staff stability; (Lightfoot; Mellor & Chapman; Purkey & Smith)
- . allowing a low turnover of staff - the resulting staff stability builds commitment to school goals; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . developing co-operative activity and group interaction in the classroom; (MacKenzie)
- . obtaining an emphasis on co-operative, interpersonal relationships; (Mellor and Chapman)
- . assisting the development of positive responses from students; (Mellor and Chapman)
- . ensuring a good pastoral care program is developed for students; (H.M.I.)
- . encouraging teacher empathy, rapport, and personal interaction with students; (MacKenzie)
- . obtaining acceptance by students of group norms; (Rutter et al.)
- . developing respect and mutual trust among teachers and students; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . establishing trust and an open communication in the school; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . building high levels of trust, co-operation and motivation; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . ensuring materials are shared by teachers; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . enabling frequent talk between teachers about the curriculum and teaching; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . principals rewarding staff who work co-operatively; and (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . ensuring staff participation in the development of school policies, plans, and in design and implementation of staff development, and the other decisions affecting work in the school. (Corcoran and Hansen)

Staff-development activities may assist development of peer cohesion by:

- . creating a shared language among a school staff; (Little)
- . requiring collective participation in training and implementation; (Little)
- . obtaining total staff involvement with school improvement; (MacKenzie)
- . building staff agreement toward, and commitment to, clearly stated and commonly identified norms and goals; (Purkey and Smith)
- . staff collaboratively setting priorities for action and attempting to develop consensus by this process; and (Docker et al.)
- . building collaboration and co-operation, involving provisions for people to do things together, talking together, sharing concerns. (Lieberman and Miller)

STAFF SUPPORT - Staff support is the extent to which the senior staff support teachers (or students) and encourage teachers (or students) to support each other.

Statements by researchers writing about effective schools are listed below. They indicate some ways for achieving staff support by ensuring that:

- . teachers are capable and motivated; (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . positive strategies that encourage motivation are used - praise, self-esteem, providing a supportive atmosphere; (Mulford)
- . there is recognition of achievement; (Mellor and Chapman)
- . there is recognition of teachers' expertise and experience; (Purkey and Smith)
- . there are widespread rewards and recognition; (Murphy et al.)
- . there is recognition within the school of academic success; (Purkey and Smith)
- . there are high and positive achievement expectations with a constant press for excellence; (MacKenzie)
- . there is recognition for students (and teachers) within the school taking the form of honours, ceremonies, publications, announcements, rewards, posters and other means of demonstrating the importance of achievement; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . the school shows a visible pride in the academic accomplishments of its students; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . there is a fearless and empathetic regard by staff for students in the school; (Lightfoot)
- . there are high expectations and high standards for student performance; (Murphy et al., Mellor and Chapman)
- . visible rewards for academic excellence and growth; (MacKenzie)
- . there is an expectation that all students in the school will do well; (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . there is a commitment by the principal, the teachers and the students to high achievement; (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . there are high expectations of success and school-wide recognition of academic achievement and progress; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . high expectations are extended to effort and co-operation as well as performance; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . leadership supports the staff; (Mellor and Chapman; HMI; Purkey and Smith)
- . the principal establishes effective relationships with an Education Department, community, teachers and students; (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . the principal obtains district (regional) support; (Purkey and Smith)
- . leadership functions are shared in a team, so that people can provide complementary skills and gain experiences in taking on roles. (Lieberman and Miller)

3.4.2 The personal development dimension

AUTONOMY - Autonomy is the extent to which teachers are encouraged to be self-sufficient and to make their own decisions.

Statements made by researchers writing about effective schools are listed below. They describe ways of encouraging the autonomy of teachers in effective schools by ensuring that:

- . teachers take responsibility and indicate a strong commitment to learning; (Mulford)
- . teachers exhibit professionalism; (Mulford)
- . there is provision for students to take on responsibility in the school; (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . students accept responsibility; (Rutter et al.)
- . there is a high degree of staff involvement in the development of schools' educational goals; (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . teachers are highly involved in decision-making in the school; (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . teachers are seen as the central actors in the educational process; (Lightfoot)
- . staff have considerable autonomy to determine their policies and programs within the framework of district (regional) policy and in solving problems they encounter when attempting to improve academic success; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . staff have autonomy and flexibility to implement adaptive practices; (MacKenzie)
- . good teachers are given higher degrees of autonomy and independence; (Lightfoot)
- . there is teacher-directed classroom management and decision-making; (MacKenzie)
- . there is a constant search for a balance between teachers' autonomy, initiative and adulthood on one hand, and the requirements for conformity, discipline and commitments to school life on the other; (Lightfoot)
- . there is increased autonomy, reward, stimulation, and the adult regard of teachers who are generally competent, or even gifted, and that this enhances their effectiveness as pedagogues and critical members of the school community; (Lightfoot)
- . the principal respects the professionalism of staff members; strong accountability is balanced by optimal autonomy for the teaching staff; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . the faculty take responsibility of the outcomes of the educational programs and treat poor results as problems to be solved; and (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . teachers continually aspire for quality in their work. (HMI)

TASK ORIENTATION - Task orientation is the extent to which the school administration emphasises good planning and efficiency, and encourages teachers to 'get the job done'.

Effective schools appear to assist staff in their tasks by encouraging:

- . teachers to have high expectations of their work and behaviour; (Rutter et al.)
- . teachers to model good conduct; (Rutter et al.)
- . teachers to feel a sense of success and achievement; (Rutter et al.)
- . a central dominance of teachers and careful attention given to their needs; (Lightfoot)
- . development of a curriculum that is well articulated and organised; (Murphy et al.)
- . teachers to value learning time; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . learning time is maximised; (Purkey and Smith)
- . effective use of instructional time, amount and intensity of engagement in school learning; (MacKenzie)
- . efforts to reduce disruptions, improve scheduling, reduce student movement, reduce the number of non-academic events, increase length of school day and improve classroom management; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . sharing of duties and resources to occur in an efficient manner; (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . senior staff to be responsive and supportive to the needs of teachers; and (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . a clear focus upon academic achievement, high standards and a rich curriculum. (Mulford)

3.4.3 The system maintenance and system change dimension

WORK PRESSURE - Work pressure is the extent to which the pressure of work dominates the job milieu.

Researchers reviewed have usually suggested the need of finding ways to create time and reduce work pressure by stating that administrators should:

- . create time for staff-development and school improvement activities; (Docker et al.)
- . provide time for staff to learn; (Lieberman and Miller)
- . find ways of easing the work pressure perceived by high school teachers; (Purkey and Smith; Docker et al.)
- . reduce teacher-student contacts for high school teachers from approximately 150 per week to 80 per week; (Sizer; Goodlad)
- . reduce the teaching load (direct instruction time per week) of high school teachers; (Sizer; Goodlad)
- . note that lack of time for the whole faculty to participate in school-wide planning had a detrimental effect on teachers' enthusiasm and commitment to change; (Purkey and Smith)
- . provide relief time to convey to staff members that they are recognised as professionals; and (Purkey and Smith)
- . create time for reflection by individuals and groups of staff. (Docker et al.)

CLARITY - Clarity is the extent to which teachers know what to expect in their daily routines and how explicitly rules and policies are communicated.

Most researchers state that schools need to develop:

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| . a sense of mission, that is, a sense of purpose; | (Mulford) |
| . a clear academic mission or focus; | (Murphy et al.) |
| . clarity of purpose - a stable and well-defined curriculum; | (Mellor and Chapman) |
| . a sustained and visible ideological stance; | (Lightfoot) |
| . clear objectives; | (HMI) |
| . an academic emphasis; | (Rutter et al.) |
| . an ethos, norms and values; | (Rutter et al.) |
| . clearly stated educational goals; | (Caldwell and Spinks) |
| . a set of values considered important; | (Caldwell and Spinks) |
| . goal-focussed activities toward clear, attainable and relevant objectives; | (MacKenzie) |
| . consensus about educational goals, which should be clearly articulated; | (Corcoran and Hansen) |
| . goals that help shape the allocation of time and other resources which provide focus for the daily operations of the school; | (Corcoran and Hansen) |
| . clear goals and high expectations commonly shared by teachers (and students); | (Purkey and Smith) |
| . an articulated and organised curriculum; | (Murphy et al.) |
| . design and organisation for a curriculum; | (HMI) |
| . instruction guided by content coverage; | (MacKenzie) |
| . schoolwide emphasis on basic and higher order skills | (MacKenzie) |
| . tight curriculum, opportunity to learn, and direct teaching; | (Murphy et al.) |
| . a well-balanced and organised program to meet students' needs; and | (Caldwell and Spinks) |
| . commitment to educate each student fully. | (Mulford) |

In addition, most researchers believe the school should be a safe and ordered community with:

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| . conscious attention being given to making the school a positive, safe and ordered community; | (Mulford) |
| . rules, regulations and guidelines being understood by all; | (Mulford) |
| . a safe and ordered environment; | (Murphy et al.) |
| . order and discipline; | (Purkey and Smith) |
| . a safe environment; | (Lightfoot) |
| . order, discipline, and a business-like atmosphere being features; and | (Corcoran and Hansen) |
| . well-structured classroom activities; | (MacKenzie) |
| . rules being fairly enforced, where there are uniform procedures for discipline procedures throughout the school,
and the resulting sense of security and order building responsibility and a sense of pride. | (Corcoran and Hansen) |

Clarity (continued)

Leaders who assist the development of clarity in their schools appear to:

- . provide strong, consistent and inspired leadership; (Lightfoot)
- . possess administrative leadership qualities (instructional focus, high standards, personal vision); (Mulford)
- . be achievement-oriented, stressing academics, their personal use of time, and their allocation of resources and rewards that reflect this priority; their goals tend to be expressed in terms of student learning; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . be assertive principals; they set clear goals and provide direction to their staff; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . have a vision of the school based upon the values which can be, and are, publicly articulated; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . provide instructional support; (Murphy et al.)
- . be participants, have vision and resourcefulness, provide instructional support; and (Starratt)
- . provide technical, human, educational, symbolic and cultural leadership. (Sergiovanni)

CONTROL - Control is the extent to which teachers know what to expect in their daily routines and how explicitly rules and policies are communicated.

According to researchers, leaders who exhibit good control or supervise their staff effectively appear to:

- . have an overview of the academic program; (HMI)
- . be very aware of what is happening in the school; (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . be superordinates who know what is going on in their schools, and check up on the implementation of school policy, for instance in homework and punctuality; (Rutter et al.)
- . be active supervisors, spending considerable time in classrooms and in discussions with staff about curriculum and instruction; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . maintain effective communications with staff and provide frequent feedback to teachers; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . frequently monitor work of staff; (Murphy et al.; Starratt)
- . evaluate work of teachers (appraisal); (Mulford)
- . provide feedback on acceptable performance; (Rutter et al.)
- . provide considerable feedback to teachers; (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . ensure that a continual review of their schools programs occurs and that progress towards goals is evaluated; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . emphasise evaluation of schools and their programs and hold staff accountable for the results; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . have high academic standards and monitor pupils' performance frequently; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . ensure that staff implement sound assessment practices of both student performance and academic programs; (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . develop good discipline in the school; and (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . ensure that there are few occasions when senior administrators in the school need to be directly involved in the discipline of students. (Corcoran and Hansen)

INNOVATION - Innovation is the extent to which variety, change, and new approaches are emphasised in the school.

Schools where innovation is encouraged do:

- . have exciting and challenging environments; (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . have principals willing to take risks; (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . develop norms of collegiality and experimentation; (Duignan and Johnson)
- . possess an atmosphere that is friendly to experimentation; (Purkey and Smith)
- . allow time for sharing ideas and values of participants; (Docker et al.)
- . have environments that are congruent with and contribute to professional habits and norms described elsewhere as 'collegiality' and 'experimentation'; (Little)
- . possess staff-development programs that ensure adequate collaboration, produce shared understanding shared investment, thoughtful development, and the fair and vigorous test of selected ideas. (Little)

Innovative schools appear to have principals who:

- . support development efforts by protecting ideas, announcing expectations, making provision for necessary resources; (Lieberman and Miller)
- . allocate resources to allow the activities to be followed up and to maintain changes in teacher practice; and (Docker et al.)
- . provide staff with autonomy and support responses to educational needs of children. (Purkey and Smith)

Innovative schools often have high levels of parental and community involvement and this is regarded as important in gaining support and acceptance of changes as indicated by researchers on effective schools below:

- . schools obtain parent involvement; (Mulford)
- . develop positive community responses; (Murphy et al.; Purkey and Smith; Mellor and Chapman)
- . create links with local community; (HMI)
- . sustain high levels of parental involvement in children's educational activities; (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . sustain high levels of community involvement in decision-making in the school; (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . maintain frequent communications between the home and school; and (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . develop critical dialogue both within the school and with the school community. (Lightfoot)

PHYSICAL COMFORT - Physical comfort is the extent to which the physical surroundings contribute to a pleasant work environment.

According to the comments of researchers, physical comfort affects staff and students' achievement and motivation by:

- . causing students to behave better when they work in attractive and pleasant surroundings in which decorations and buildings are well maintained; (Rutter et al.)
- . increasing academic achievement when students had access to a telephone, refreshment facilities and the privilege of congregating in buildings during breaks; (Rutter et al. cited in Misko)
- . providing decoration and care of schools and classrooms that can be associated with higher achievement by students; (Rutter et al.; Phi Delta Kappan study)
- . providing pleasant surroundings to heighten staff and students' motivation; (Caldwell and Spinks)
- . providing physical facilities that are not necessarily new or modern, but which are safe, clean and provide adequate work space; and (Corcoran and Hansen)
- . providing adequate resources in the school to enable teachers to teach effectively. (Caldwell and Spinks)

3.5 SUMMARY OF THE CHARACTERISTICS LISTED ACCORDING TO MOOS'S DIMENSIONS IN SECTION 3.3

While most of the characteristics mentioned by researchers earlier in this chapter can be listed with confidence in one of Moos's sub-scales, there is an overlap of some of the characteristics (or statements by researchers) listed in sub-scales in section 3.4. This overlap occurs with characteristics between sub-scales in the same dimension, as indicated with the terms 'collaborative planning' and 'involvement in decision-making' in section 3.3.3, and also with characteristics between sub-scales in different dimensions. For example, some of the researchers' statements listed in the 'clarity' sub-scale (e.g. 'clear sense of purpose' and 'safe and ordered school') in the system maintenance and system change dimensions, could clearly affect teachers' perceptions of the 'task orientation' sub-scale in the personal development dimension, or in the 'staff support' sub-scale of the relationship dimension. Numerous examples could be given to indicate this dilemma addressed by researchers attempting to describe a school work environment or climate. However, as argued by Murphy et al. (1985), these factors can be viewed as sets of characteristics, or clusters of variables, interrelated in reality, that could be used to describe school climate.

These tables do indicate that there is a close relationship between the characteristics listed by researchers describing school climate, effective schools, leadership, and school improvement, and the general areas or sub-scales developed by Moos to describe the work environment. This similarity is further enhanced by a comparison of

the research statements or characteristics presented in the tables in section 3.4, with the groups of questions selected by Moos to be included in the sub-scales in the Work Environment Scale (see Appendix 4). Researchers have consistently described similar clusters of characteristics when describing aspects of school climate to allow the confident use of the Moos's work-environment scale in providing a measure of most characteristics of a school climate.

It is acknowledged that the characteristics gleaned from the review of research in Chapter 2 were derived from different research studies, using different research methodologies and based on a variety of assumptions about the nature of schooling. What is important to the author is that there is a fairly consistent conception among most researchers of what characteristics are linked to 'effective' or 'good' schools. It would appear that there may be some similar underlying realities which all of these abstractions are trying to describe.

When these characteristics were organised under the headings provided by Moos's work environment scale, the author found a coherence or close fit. It is therefore argued that Moos has provided a model that can be grounded in a body of research literature outside of the research using the model itself, which extraneous research literature points to its usefulness precisely as a research tool for studying schools. The fact that this can be done points to the model's usefulness as a research tool for studying teachers' perceptions of their work environment.

From a basis presented in the literature review in Chapter 2 and from the summary of characteristics in section 3.4, it is therefore argued that the Moos conceptualisation for studying human environments and the resultant development of the Work Environment Scale (WES), are useful for conceptualising human environments and for describing school climate. The summary of the literature in Chapter 2 assists the argument that this conceptually-based research model, developed in section 3.4, describes many of the characteristics forming school climate. The work environment scale developed by Moos, and described in Chapter 4, covers many of these areas. It is argued therefore, that this conceptually based research model forms a valid approach to describing school climate.

3.6 THE RPTIM MODEL

Thompson (1981) developed a research-based model to describe the processes of designing staff-development programs for teachers.

The acronym, RPTIM, stand for the five stages in the model: readiness, planning, training, implementation and maintenance. The basic assumptions upon which the model is based, are described in Chapter 4. Overall, the RPTIM model describes 38 practices which Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson suggest should be used in designing in-service programs. These practices are described under the five stages. The practices, within each stage were developed through an analysis and synthesis of the literature about the best practices and research related to staff development. The practices in each stage are tabulated in Table 11 in Chapter 4.

As outlined by Starratt in Chapter 2 of this thesis, the literature written about effective schools describes what effective schools do, whereas the literature about staff development and school improvement deals more with the strategies and dynamics of becoming an effective school. For this reason, the strategies listed in the following sections, taken from Chapters 2, 8, and Appendix 3 were analysed and tabulated according to the rubric of the RPTIM model of staff-development practices.

3.7 CHARACTERISTICS AND STRATEGIES OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES LISTED ACCORDING TO THE RPTIM MODEL

Descriptors are provided for each of the stages of the RPTIM model.

3.7.1 Readiness

READINESS. This stage refers to the time spent building commitment for staff development and developing trust among teachers and administrators, and to allow for shared decision-making. During the readiness stage attempts are made to overcome the traditional practices of teachers and administrators working in isolation.

The following statements made by researchers are grouped together as representative of this stage.

- . Research supports the role of paying attention to school culture in school-improvement activities. (Berman and McLaughlin; Meyer and Rowan; Miles; Sarason; Purkey and Smith; Weick)
- . School personnel should understand the unique cultural differences in each school. (Lieberman and Miller)
- . The school climate should be supportive of staff-development efforts. (MacKenzie; Docker et al.)
- . Success of professional-development activities depends upon the prevailing attitudes within the organisation where the ideas are to be implemented. (Docker et al.)
- . Schools can develop flexible change strategies that reflect the unique 'personality' of a school by:
 - . increasing involvement of teachers and other staff members in decision-making; and
 - . expanding opportunities for collaborative planning. (Purkey and Smith)
- . Efforts to change schools have been more productive and most enduring when directed towards influencing the entire school culture through a strategy involving collaborative planning, shared decision-making, and collegial work in an atmosphere friendly to experimentation and evaluation. (Purkey and Smith)
- . School cohesiveness can be obtained through building staff agreement about and commitment to clearly and commonly identified norms and goals. (Purkey and Smith)
- . Staff should set priorities for action collaboratively and through the process attempt to develop consensus. (Docker et al.)
- . Building collaboration and co-operation, involving provisions for people to do things together, talking together, sharing concerns. (Lieberman and Miller)
- . Staff-development activities should ensure that collaboration is adequate to produce shared understanding, shared investment, thoughtful development, and the rigorous test of selected ideas. (Little)
- . People in good schools do things. They have a bias for action, a proclivity for success, and a sense of opportunism. (Clark, Lotto and Astuto)
- . Staff-development activities are consistent with, and promote, the accomplishment of school goals. (Murphy et al.)
- . Staff development should:
 - . be school-focused; (Tinkler)*
 - . be aligned to school improvement goals; (Goodlad; Docker et al.)
 - . involve the entire school staff to achieve well understood and agreed upon goals for school improvement; (Courter and Ward)
 - . be based upon a development model, and (Purkey and Smith; Docker et al.)
 - . obtain total staff involvement with school improvement activities. (MacKenzie)

Readiness (continued)

- . Staff-development activities should:
 - . be developed around a particular focus; (Lieberman and Miller)
 - . be focussed on crucial problems of curriculum and instruction; (Little)
 - . be instruction (teaching) focussed; (Purkey and Smith; Docker et al.; Bergman et al.; Murphy et al.)
 - . assist to develop more effective teaching (MacKenzie)
 - . pay careful attention to staff development processes; and (Purkey)
 - . focus on issues common to the whole staff in secondary schools, e.g. discipline, competencies, grading, assessment and homework. (Purkey and Smith; Docker et al.)
 - . Staff development in an effective school is a process that must involve the entire staff, including the site administrators in an on-going, high quality effort to achieve well understood and agreed upon goals for school improvement. (Courter and Ward)
 - . The designated leaders create an environment for trial and a tolerance for failure so that leaders can emerge and be sustained at all levels of the school system; (Clark, Lotto and Astuto).
- The content and process of staff-development activities should become an integral part of school climate activities. (Murphy et al.)
- . A school policy with goals, guidelines and procedures for staff development should be developed. (Docker et al.)
 - . Staff development should include process reforms that strive to capture the interest and imagination of school faculties, to revitalise those who are demoralised, and to generate enthusiasm for doing work on common goals. (Farrar)
 - . Student perceptions of school life in secondary schools may be important. (Rutter et al.)
 - . Student participation can be a powerful, contributing factor in most situations, and involvement of students in school improvement projects may be encouraged. (Purkey and Smith)

3.7.2 Planning

PLANNING. This stage involves planning for long-term change. It focusses on specific plans for an in-service education program to be implemented over three to five years and designed to achieve the desired changes or professional practices selected in Stage 1.

- . Examine actual staff-development practices in a school and consider activities preferred by teachers. (Docker et al.)
- . Consider teachers' desire and, or, their needs for change. (Griffin and Barnes)
- . Staff-development activities should:
 - . be based on expressed needs of teachers; (Purkey and Smith; Docker et al.)
 - . recognise expertise and experience of teachers; (Purkey and Smith)
 - . recognise a teacher's own experience and self-perception as these are important starting points; (Karmel; Docker et al.)
 - . focus the commencement of improvement efforts upon the concerns and needs of teachers; (Lieberman and Miller; Christensen, Burke and Fessler)
 - . know what their core tasks are and focus on those jobs - like successful companies, they 'stick to the knitting'; (Clark, Lotto and Astuto)
 - . recognise the needs of society and technological change; and (Docker et al.)
 - . take into account personal and professional needs. (Docker et al.; Christensen, Burke and Fessler)
 - . plan for now, seize decision options when they arise, try new ideas, drop bad trials, and plan within their strengths) (Clark, Lotto and Astuto)
- . Planning for professional development should:
 - . consider development as a life-long learning process; (Christensen, Burke and Fessler)
 - . recognise that there are many variations of development efforts and that there is no one best way; (Lieberman and Miller)
 - . involve teachers in decision-making and collaborative planning; (Murphy et al.)
 - . integrate needs of individuals and schools; (Tinkler; Docker et al.)
 - . shift from individualistic activities to a site-based attack on school problems; (Goodlad)
 - . provide 'slack' or time for teachers to reflect on their practice; (Clark, Lotto and Astuto)
 - . resist simplistic solutions to complex problems; (Lieberman and Miller)
 - . become comfortable with reworking issues and finding enhanced understanding and enlightenment; and (Lieberman and Miller)
 - . make sure there is a collegial relationship between staff during the implementation of in-service programs. (Murphy et al.)

Staff-development activities should pay attention to the following adult learning characteristics, styles and processes, including:

- . learning processes of adults and in resultant transfer to classroom teaching; (Burrello and Orbaugh)
- . adult learning characteristics of problem-centred orientation, preference to re-define a problem during the process of learning, and movement into the learning situation through an 'experiential imperative'; (Knowles)
- . acknowledgement of physical and social experiences and personality differences of adult learners; (Knowles)
- . acknowledgement that adult learners are judgemental and have only so much energy to expend; (Knowles cited in Christensen et al.)
- . plan for adult learners in a flexible and an adaptive manner; and (Goodlad and Klein)
- . relate staff-development activities to the real problems of the practice of teaching. (Docker)

Planning (continued)

In terms of resources, staff-development activities should:

- . include a thorough program of professional reading;
- . create time for staff-development activities;
- . provide time for staff to learn;
- . find ways of easing perceived work pressure of high school teachers; and
- . provide relief teacher days to convey to staff members that they are recognised as professionals

(Docker et al.)
(Docker et al.; Murphy et al.; Purkey and Smith)
(Lieberman and Miller)
(Purkey & Smith; Docker et al.; Sizer; Goodlad)
(Purkey and Smith)

Lack of time for the whole faculty to participate in school wide planning had a detrimental effect on teacher enthusiasm and commitment to change

(Purkey and Smith)

Professional-development activities should:

- . increase teachers knowledge of, understanding of, and expertise in their professional work;
- . alter professional practices, beliefs, and understandings of all school staff;
- . consider that both content and process are essential, and that you cannot have one without the other;
- . have strong administration support to stabilise and support innovation; and
- . obtain commitment of groups of teachers in decision making about any innovation.

(Morant; Docker et al.)
(Griffin)
(Lieberman and Miller)
(Miles)
(Miles)

3.7.3 Training

TRAINING - The third stage builds new classroom skills and strategies. Research-based techniques of presentation, modelling, feedback, and coaching are useful tools to build confidence and encourage teachers as they begin to use new practices in the classroom. In this stage the plans are translated into practice. This stage responds very directly to what is known about adult learning.

The following statements relate to the training stage of staff-development activities.

- . Leaders should start where people are, not where you are. (Lieberman and Miller)
- . Leaders should create time for reflection by groups and individuals. (Docker et al.)
- . Activities can create a shared language. (Little)
- . Allow for sharing of ideas and values by participants. (Docker et al.)
- . Require collective participation in training. (Little)
- . Use adult learning theories. (Docker et al.)
- . Activities need to be compatible with the preferred learning style of the individual. (France, McCarthy)
- . Adults commit themselves to learning something when the goals and objectives of the in-service program are considered important to them. (Wood and Thompson)
- . Adults will learn, retain, and use what they perceive is relevant to their personal and professional needs. (Wood and Thompson)
- . Adults need to be involved in the selection of objectives, contents, activities and assessment of their in-service programs. (Wood and Thompson)
- . Adults will resist situations which they believe are an attack on their competence, and thus, will resist imposed in-service topics and activities. (Wood and Thompson)
- . Staff should choose voluntarily to be involved in staff-development activities. (Murphy et al.)
- . Staff should have ultimate responsibility for their own professional-development activities. (Auchmuty; Vickery)
- . Leaders should develop (norms of) collegiality and experimentation. (Duignan and Johnson)
- . Leaders should build upon teachers' experiences and maturity, support their efforts to diagnose problems and recognise their autonomy and individuality. (Power)
- . Leaders should note adult cognitive development, motivation amongst professionals and teaching of adults. (Power)
- . Select leaders wisely for their expertise rather than on the basis of seniority. (Docker et al.)
- . Teachers and administrators learn from each other, share language and symbols from the in-service program, and plan and prepare work related to the development together. (Murphy et al.)
- . Share leadership functions among members of a team, so that people can provide complementary skills and gain experience in taking of roles. (Lieberman and Miller)
- . Training should involve a 'theory-demonstration-practice-feedback' process. (Showers et al.)

3.7.4 Implementation

IMPLEMENTATION - The fourth stage turns ideas into realities. The stage focuses on ensuring that the training becomes a continuing part of the professional behaviour of teachers and administrators and thus the new knowledge and skills learned in in-service training are installed in the work setting.

The following statements relate to the implementation stage of staff-development activities.

- . The most important aspect of effective implementation is obtaining co-operation among teachers (and the community). (Mulford)
- . Promotes shared norms of collegiality and experimentation. (Duignan and Johnson)
- . Is congruent with and contributes to professional habits and norms that are described elsewhere as norms of collegiality and experimentation. (Little)
- . Recognises the complexity and craft nature of the teacher's work. (Lieberman and Miller)
- . Leaders should be sensitive to the effects of teacher isolation. (Lieberman and Miller)
- . Leaders support development efforts by protecting ideas, announcing expectations, making provisions for necessary resources. (Lieberman and Miller)
- . Leaders recognise the importance of shared talk, joint preparation, informing, reporting back to staff, joint preparation by interschool groups of teachers, and social contact. (Duignan and Johnson)
- . Requires collective participation in implementation. (Little)
- . Allocate resources (money, relief, time, materials, etc.) to allow the activities to be followed up and to maintain changes in teacher practice. (Docker et al.)
- . Are conducted often enough and long enough to ensure progressive gains in knowledge, skill and confidence. (Little)
- . Give staff members authority and support needs necessary to respond to the educational needs of their subjects and the pragmatic demands of the school as an organisation. (Purkey and Smith)
- . To achieve transfer of a complex model of teaching to a teachers classroom practice approximately 25 repeats of the practice are necessary. (Showers, Joyce and Bennett)
- . Teacher-administrator harmony is essential to any changes or innovations. (Miles)

3.7.5 Maintenance

MAINTENANCE. This stage begins as new behaviours are integrated into daily practice. It ensures institutionalisation of a systematic school improvement process. Carefully trained staff members support continuation of that improvement process so that once a change in performance is optimal the improved performance will continue. Numerous researchers have commented on the necessity of senior staff evaluating teacher performance and school programs as outlined below.

The following statements relate to the maintenance stage of staff-development activities.

- | | |
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| . Feedback should be provided about acceptable teacher performance. | (Rutter et al.) |
| . Evaluation of teachers is important. | (Mulford) |
| . Provides a high level of feedback to teachers. | (Caldwell and Spinks) |
| . Ensures that a continual review of a school program occurs and that progress towards goals is evaluated. | (Corcoran and Hansen) |
| . High academic standards and monitoring student performance frequently, are important. | (Corcoran and Hansen) |
| . Staff are held accountable for results. | (Corcoran and Hansen) |
| . Leaders should provide frequent feedback to teachers. | (Corcoran and Hansen) |
| . Leaders should recognise frequent monitoring of staff is important. | (Murphy et al., Starratt) |
| . Superordinates know what is going on in their schools and check up on the implementation of school policy. | (Rutter et al.) |

3.8 SUMMARY OF THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RPTIM MODEL

The research reviewed by the author in the area of staff-development practices and school improvement was extensive. This review concentrated mainly upon the processes and strategies whereby schools may become more effective. Staff-development activities play a crucial part in any school improvement activity. According to Wood, Macquarie and Thompson, the RPTIM model is a comprehensive research-based model for designing staff-development activities and to assist in school improvement efforts. The literature reviewed in Chapters 2, 8, and a summary of the Tasmanian evaluation, Appendix 3, were analysed and categorised according to the model. The resultant grouping of strategies and processes presented in section 4.7 followed wherever possible, the order of listing of practices in the RPTIM model.

The RPTIM model follows the basic categories of most change models. The characteristics gleaned from the review of research in Chapter 2 were derived from different research studies that used different research methodologies. Again, what is important to the author is that there is a fairly consistent conception of the characteristics that most researchers attribute to staff development. It will be demonstrated later that this is also consistent with the review of school improvement researchers in Chapter 8. It will again be argued that there may be some similar underlying realities which all these abstractions are trying to describe. The exemplary practices and characteristics of successful staff development are consistently

described by researchers. Most of these practices appear to be essential if successful school improvement is to occur.

When these characteristics were organised under the headings provided by the RPTIM model, the author found a coherence or close fit. It is therefore argued that the RPTIM model can be used with confidence as the characteristics and practices listed are developed from the body of research literature written about effective schools and school improvement. Most of the practices listed in the RPTIM model, and the stages of the model, are grounded in the literature of successful innovations, change processes and school improvement.

This review would confirm the research-based, the comprehensive and the systematic natures of the RPTIM model. It is, therefore argued that the RPTIM model is a conceptually-based research model and describes many of the best practices in staff development. The assumptions underlying the development of the model, a full description of the model and information about its validity are provided in Chapter 4. From the information provided in Chapters 2 and 8, Appendix 3 and this chapter, the author suggests that the model provides a particularly valid method for describing staff-development practices in schools.

3.9 CONCLUSION

This analysis of current literature about school climate, staff-development practices, effective schools, and school improvement would indicate that there are many characteristics or clusters of

characteristics that interact to provide more 'effective' schools and provide 'better' student learning. Many of these characteristics, strategies and processes identified in the literature review were listed in this chapter. Some of these characteristics were categorised according to the Moos' taxonomy for studying work environments and other characteristics were categorised according to the RPTIM model for staff-development practices.

In the hypothesised theory to account for the relationship between school climate and staff-development practices in Chapter 2, it was argued that a large number of the characteristics of these concepts were crucial elements in creating a 'good' or 'effective' school. Developing such a school would involve obtaining a positive climate, using the knowledge about change processes and imbedding good staff-development practices into school routines. No doubt these characteristics and processes are interwoven in the complex daily life of a school. However, to motivate and to develop teachers in a school and to continually strive for excellence in all school endeavours, requires acknowledgement of and attention to the interacting nature of these characteristics and processes. This will be further discussed in later chapters. The two models discussed in this chapter may assist school leaders to do this.

From this analysis it is argued that both the WES and RPTIM models are conceptually- based upon research and provide approaches for studying and describing school climate or staff-development practices. Furthermore, it is argued that many of the characteristics and strategies for improving schools are consistent with either of these models.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

The WES and RPTIM surveys were both used in case studies evaluating professional-development practices in Tasmania. The surveys were selected following a review of the literature on school climate, staff-development practices and the effective school research. Both surveys were used in the study to gather information related to the questions for research 1, 2, 3 and 4.

1. What differences exist between actual and preferred approaches to staff development?
2. What differences exist between teachers' perceptions of actual and preferred school climates?
3. What is the relationship between approaches to staff development and the perceived climate in the school?
4. For each of research questions 1-3 above, what differences exist among schools when classified according to type, size and location.

To provide information about research question 4 (p. 4), a sample of schools was selected to be representative of Tasmanian schools. Details of the method of selection are included in this chapter.

In order to provide additional information for research questions 3, 4, 5 and 6 (p. 4), details of a number of case studies in professional development will be used. In selecting this sample of

schools for this investigation, no methodologies or criteria were applied to establish whether these schools would be regarded as 'effective' by an expert panel. There was also little overlap with the schools selected by Caldwell (ERASP, 1984), so that direct comparisons with identified effective schools and the schools selected for this sample in the Tasmanian setting could not be drawn. The aim of using these case studies, in Chapter 7, is to explore the relationship between school climate and professional-development practices. These case studies will be discussed in detail in Chapter 7.

This chapter will include a justification of the case study approach, discuss reliability and validity of the information obtained, and report on the data collection process and the interview schedule. As the WES and RPTIM surveys described in this study were administered in the context of school case studies, the methodology used for gathering information on these surveys will be discussed and the way in which the data were analysed. Reliability and validation data for these surveys are presented.

The methodology used to gather information for the second purpose of this study, outlined in research question 7, is discussed near the end of this chapter.

Research question 7 stated:

7. Which approaches may be adopted to enhance the quality of school climates and staff-development practices?

4.1 SAMPLE OF SCHOOLS SELECTED

So that the results of this study would be representative of Tasmanian schools, schools were selected according to the five criteria listed below. Thirty-three schools were selected to be representative of:

(1) School type

Primary (grades K-6), high (grades 7-10), district high (grades K-10), secondary colleges (grades 11 and 12).

(2) Government and independent schools

Independent schools in Tasmania cater for approximately 17 percent of the student population. Five of the 33 schools were independent schools, and these included three secondary schools and two smaller primary schools.

(3) Large and small schools

In Tasmania most high schools have 400-800 pupils, district high schools 300-800 pupils and secondary colleges 600-1000 pupils. The only relatively small schools are some primary schools. As a result, a range of small and larger primary schools were included.

(4) Urban and rural

Tasmania has a large number of rural centres with schools serving the people in that region. Urban schools are defined as schools in Hobart, Launceston, Devonport or Burnie. A balance of urban and rural schools (approximately equal to the population distribution defined as urban and rural) were included in the sample.

(5) Geographical location

Tasmania is divided into three administrative regions (for example, different telephone codes) of south, north and north west. Schools were selected so that a balance of points (1) to (4) above were included in each region. That is, schools representing each school type, an independent school, large and small primary schools and a range of urban and rural schools were included in each region.

As a result of this selection procedure, the schools selected for case studies constituted a representative sample of schools in Tasmania. Data were collected from staff in twenty-six of these schools (a response of approximately 79 percent). The data were collected in a case study approach according to guidelines agreed on by evaluators in all schools. Justification of the case study approach used in this study, the data collection process and reliability and validity of the information gathered follows. These details are provided because additional information from the case studies is used in this thesis to show a stronger relationship between school climate and staff-development practices obtained from the WES and RPTIM studies.

4.2 JUSTIFICATION OF THE CASE STUDY APPROACH

Because the case study tends towards qualitative, subjective reporting, the question of truth and validity arises. However, as Parlett contended (1976:6), 'any research study requires skilled human

judgements and is thus vulnerable', while Kemmis (1983) argued that to be truthful is to present the case on authentic grounds, setting out the reasonableness of the construction and showing methods. Proponents of the case study could look, too, to the use made of the report before acknowledging its validity.

The use of the 'case study' approach to gather information on professional development was most appropriate because:

1. The most important views are those of the users of professional-development courses, and their views, it is reasonably argued, can best be obtained from the 'inside'. The information provided in case studies is strong in reality because it is developed by inside evaluators using perceptions of their staff in the confines of their school. Staff who read their school's case study can see their own experiences in it.
2. The aims and objectives of professional development in schools are ambiguous. Methods of providing for professional-development activities vary according to needs (individual, school, system), philosophy or practices in schools. The complexity of 'social truths' can be recognised in the conflicting views that were often expressed in schools.

Thus, a multitude of environmental and personal factors is likely to impinge on teachers' participation in professional-development courses. The authenticity of these case studies must change as the situation changes. The agreements and dialogue made during the case study must, therefore, be treated historically.

3. Case-study researchers working in each school provide the best means of both gathering the views of teachers, and setting these views in the context of the organisational environment of the school and the personal environment of the teachers. The researchers should be more in harmony with the real situation and the school than an outsider. Readers can use the material to make their own judgements, so the case study can serve a variety of audiences.

The information gained, when shared with participants involved, should make decision-making more democratic in each school and in the system as a whole.

4.2.1 Reliability and validity of information gathered

For case studies described in this study, information was obtained by observation, individual or group interviews, dialogue, school reports, school records and questionnaires. The key task in these evaluations was to report on and analyse information that was both reliable and valid. Recording, analysis and interpretation of data increased the search for truth.

The reliability of the case study depends on the accuracy, completeness and consistency of the observations. It also depends very much on the methodology used for data collection. By continually cross-checking data obtained from various sources the reliability of the case study can be improved. It would be unlikely that a different

observer would obtain radically different information. However, the reliability of the case study changes with time. The findings from a case study may therefore change with time, turnover of teachers, change in senior staff or leadership, or as a result of other environmental factors. Although generalisations can be made and the data used to form the basis for policy development and other action, the case study is essentially contextual. Thus, the test for reliability in determining whether the same results would be obtained again either by the case study evaluator or an outsider could not be applied to case studies. The key issue in obtaining reliable information appears to be subjectivity and possible bias in the evaluator. In order to overcome this, and to assist reliability, information should be cross-checked, and should include objective data such as documentary evidence from the school.

Validity refers to the appropriateness of the information. The validity of the case study stems from the use made of it. The study report of an accurate and useful (reliable) representation of the case can be used by the reader to judge issues. Thus, the nature of these case studies ensures their validity.

In these case studies the information sought and the questions asked were directed by findings in the literature related to 'effective' or 'good' schools, previous evaluations of professional development and trends and issues identified at earlier stages of the Tasmanian evaluation of professional-development practices.

The validity of these case studies could be gauged from the information, whether it was appropriate, and met the intended purpose. In the evaluation, the evaluators documented perceptions of aspects of professional development, analysed these perceptions and developed school policy in that area. School staff were allowed to confirm or reject the data at various times: following summaries of interviews being made available, and when assessments of needs and policy were given to school staff meetings. In addition, individuals were allowed to do the same to individual transcripts of their interviews. Further, staff had access to a copy of the written report, and many were read by outsiders in order to affirm or reject the conclusions. Thus, the case studies were valid although not validated in scientific terms.

It is not possible to quantify the validity of a case study. Readers from outside the case study cannot determine validity by themselves because some observations cover matters with which readers are unfamiliar. Observing and reporting are frequently influenced by the observer's point of view, and so it is very difficult to make generalisations about findings of a case study. Case studies may therefore be criticised for providing generalisations from single instances of information. But the collection of varied and validly collected information is likely to illustrate issues and relationships in depth. Adelman, Jenkins and Kemmis (1976) confirm this view when they state that:

'Case studies allow generalisations either about an instance or from an instance to a class. Their peculiar strength lies in their attention to the subtlety and complexity of the case in its own right.'

(Cited in Lawton et al., 1978:185)

Valid observations help us to understand phenomena and recognise similarity and analogy.

Because case studies are usually the product of an intense involvement by one or a few individuals, they are sometimes dismissed as subjective and regarded with suspicion. The case study is valid if it gives an accurate and useful representation of the case in a certain setting with reference to certain research questions. Thus validity need not be a contentious issue because each case is in a different environment or a 'certain setting'. Cronbach's definition of validity (1951) is apt in this context:

'If the resulting comprehension or action is of a higher quality than it would have been without the report, then the report is to some extent valid.'

(Cronbach, 1951)

4.2.2 Data collection for case studies

All case studies included information from the sources listed below. The approximate times when the information was collected is shown in brackets.

1. Written questionnaires completed by individual staff members, seeking information on age, sex, status, work-load and type of work, qualifications and experience (February, 1984).
2. A written survey of individual staff members to determine the extent of their involvement and interest in professional development and the subjects they were teaching. Any issues that arose from this survey were followed up in the interviews (February 1984).

3. Interviews with each teacher. (March-June 1984)
4. Staff discussion of some issues that arose from the interviews.
(April-August 1984)

Issues that came out of the interviews and needed clarification were dealt with in staff discussion or by staff groups that had expertise in that area.

5. A survey to determine teachers' opinions of their work environment (WES, August-September 1984).
6. A survey of effective staff development practices (RPTIM) within the schools (August-October 1984).
7. Observations made by the evaluator during school time. This also included notes of behaviour.
8. Biographical information: material on the community that the school serves, etc.
9. School records including marks, test scores and other data.

4.3 INTERVIEWS IN CASE STUDIES

The key to information collection in the case studies were the interviews, which seemed to the author and case study evaluators to be the best way to collect information for case studies on professional development. This view is shared by many writers as outlined below.

Babbie (1973) says the advantages of interviews compared with questionnaires are higher rates of response, less inconclusive answers, clarification of questions, probing, and personal observations. Wiersma states that

'the interview has the advantage of being a flexible measuring device',

(Wiersma, 1975:137)

a view Atkinson agrees with when he describes the strength of interviews in their flexibility, in that questions and responses can be negotiated, and their responsiveness, in that unanticipated avenues can be explored.

Bradley concludes that:

'Our experience would suggest that the time spent on interviewing is more than justified. Reactions and experiences are often unpredictable, and evidence of the real impact of (professional development) schemes too elusive and ambiguous for a highly structured approach.'

(Bradley, 1983:142)

Bradley further comments on subjects' reluctance to commit politically sensitive issues to paper in a questionnaire. The questionnaires in this case study provided only basic information.

An interview schedule requires some set guidelines, which must be followed for the sake of reliability and validity. Adams outlines one such list.

- 1. The questions must be asked precisely as specified.
- 2. The questions must be asked in the order presented.
- 3. Every question . . . must be asked.
- 4. When a question is not understood or is misinterpreted it must be repeated in the same words, not paraphrased.

- . Questions which respondents hesitate at or refuse to answer initially must be handled tactfully in order not to destroy rapport.
 - . Instructions to the interviewer . . . must be carefully followed.
 - . The questionnaire must be used informally and with ease.
 - . Rapport must be maintained throughout the interview.'
- (Adams, 1958:204)

Most evaluators found that choosing a time and setting when teachers were relaxed and co-operative was most important. Generally they found that it was better to use school time than lunchtimes or after school.

We are also reminded by Brady that:

'The most frequent criticism is the subjectivity of interviewing. For this reason, the interviewer should take considerable care in developing both an interview schedule or a set of questions, as well as a method of recording responses. An interview for the purpose of curriculum evaluation should not simply be an informal discussion although this is a legitimate technique in its own right. The development of interview questions should follow a procedure analogous to that of questionnaire development.'

(Brady, 1983:162-3)

In preparing for the interviews, several important factors were taken into account to assist what Wiersma (1975) refers to as 'the good rapport [that] is essential between subject and interviewer'. While Stacy Adams comments that success of the interviewer . . .

'depends considerably on the ability of the interviewer to create a friendly, permissive atmosphere of mutual trust and confidence. . . . In general, the respondent should be made to perceive that the interviewer is permissive and is doing an important job.'

(Adams, 1958:12-3)

By 'permissive', Stacy Adams means that the respondent does not feel restricted in any answers.

The importance of the setting, for the interview being conducted in 'a quiet comfortable space', is commented on by Stacy Adams (1958: 19), and a private, quiet, warm and comfortable room was chosen at each school.

Stacy Adams refers to probes as

'devices, usually questions, which elicit information in addition to that given to the first response to a general question.'
(Adams, 1958:25)

Interviewer probes were used in the interviews, and other probes at certain points when appropriate. A pause after an answer often helped in obtaining additional information. Babbie advocates this technique when stating:

'Sometimes the best probe is silence; if the interviewer sits quietly with pencil poised, the respondent will probably fill the pause with additional comments.'
(Babbie, 1973:176)

Probes provided information of great value to the study.

4.3.1 Interview method

Where schools had under twenty staff, all were interviewed. In larger schools twenty teachers were randomly selected from a computer printout of staff names. Few of the over 500 teachers who were asked to be interviewed refused and this suggested a high degree of interest in the area of professional development. The only departure from the random selection in a number of schools was the inclusion of the principal. Because of the importance of the principal's role it was essential that the principal be interviewed.

Where the evaluator was the principal, an evaluator from another school usually conducted the interview under similar conditions. Wherever an evaluator felt a certain group of teachers had not been catered for by the random sample, for example senior staff or mid-career teachers, or where a particular issue emerged, for example induction of new teachers or senior staff, a group interview was arranged. These interviews were usually unstructured but allowed evaluators to focus progressively on concerns or issues as they developed.

Considerable time was allocated for seminars to discuss interview method and collation and interpretation of data. Evaluators were asked to use one of these methods at interviews:

- . tape recording;
- . interview sheets; and
- . teams.

The advantages of each method were discussed and the choice was to be justified by the evaluator. Most opted for tape recordings, using prepared interview sheets or a combination of both. Two schools used a team approach and found it had the advantage of sharing the pool of knowledge from a wider group of staff.

Other suggestions made to evaluators that were followed in most cases, included:

- . give interviewees the interview schedule some days before the interview;
- . find a quiet and comfortable room;

- . avoid interruption of students and staff;
- . know as much about the interviewee as possible before the interview (background information questionnaire);
- . give the interviewee control of the tape recorder if used;
- . the interviewer should give a clear and concise account of the method and purpose of the interview;
- . relax the interviewee;
- . use counselling techniques, reporting back what people had said at interviews;
- . avoid use of body language;
- . use probes for more detail;
- . look for signs of tension in the interviewee by tone of voice or body language;
- . focus on valuable areas once they open up;
- . reflect on the meaning of information as it emerges and ask questions in order to clarify or amplify the meaning;
- . be alert to 'touchy' subjects, and do not blunder in;
- . thank the interviewee for their valuable time at the end of the interview;
- . keep the interview less than an hour long;
- . a few days later, informally follow up points made by the interviewee;
- . write a summary of the interview and return it to the interviewee for deletions or additions, and a request to sign it as a true statement; and
- . keep raw data.

4.3.2 Interview schedule

The case study interview schedule is shown in Appendix 7.

This schedule resulted from brainstorming and refinement of issues and questions by the three regional seminar meetings with school evaluators in October 1983, and trialling and further refinements in February 1984. Information was drawn from literature searches, and

important questions and issues were raised from previous evaluations of in-service activities and from previous stages of the Tasmanian evaluation.

The questions on the interview schedule (see Appendix 7), basically dealt with these areas:

<u>Question Number</u>		<u>Issue</u>
1	-	definitions
2, 3, 4, 5	-	expectations and motivations
6, 7	-	constraints and frustrations
8, 9, 10	-	support, follow-up, reactions from others
11, 12, 13	-	needs
14, 15	-	worth of activities
16, 17, 18	-	change, effect on teacher, school climate
19, 20	-	responsibility for professional development
21, 22	-	administration
23, 24, 25	-	professional library
26, 27, 28	-	information flow on teachers' needs for professional development.

4.3.3 Interviews: data collection and interpretation

Evaluators were very aware of the difficulty of obtaining teachers' perceptions of reality. Evaluators who were principals or senior staff had to overcome, as far as possible, the problem of teachers answering questions the way expected to a member of a school's senior staff. Furthermore, interviews conducted internally

are made more difficult because the interviewer interprets information. This may be because of inside knowledge, friendship, loyalty and other feelings the evaluator has for the teachers. The author believes that awareness of such bias will help to reduce it. The advantages of the insider conducting interviews were deemed greater than the potential disadvantages.

Several principals who were school evaluators said that the interview was one of the few opportunities in a school year when the principal could sit down with a teacher, uninterrupted, to discuss an educational issue in depth, although the conversation was structured.

About half the evaluators taped the interviews, and only one evaluator had to change the method as a result of staff reaction to tape recording in that school. In other schools there were only isolated instances of a staff member objecting to a taped interview. All interviewees were promised confidentiality. Usually names were not placed on tapes or summaries. Evaluators summarised the recording of each interview and returned it to the interviewee for deletions or comments, a process which usually took the evaluator two to three hours for each interview because the first step was to listen to the tape again. Variable-speed transcribers were invaluable.

Other evaluators used question sheets instead of a tape recorder. For each question the evaluator recorded key parts of the conversation on separate pages. In addition, each question had boxes which could be ticked for responses, and space for comments. In the top left corner of each sheet were boxes to be filled in by the interviewer after the

interview, giving information such as sex, age, status in school, subject or grade taught, status or qualifications. Earlier surveys in the evaluation suggested these areas should be cross-referenced in each question. Again, the evaluator made a brief summary of the key issues in each interview, and returned it to the interviewee for deletions or additional comments.

The sheets for each interview were then separated, and all sheets for the same question were placed in a pile. Each question was then summarised, and cross-referencing completed.

Some evaluators used tape recordings from which they then filled in the prepared sheets. The process followed was similar to those above.

After completing summaries and analysis of each question, most evaluators developed a list of the most important issues within the school, and reported to staff. Often these issues were hypotheses, and were followed by discussion. In addition, an individual needs-analysis for all school staff was completed, tabulated and reported to staff. Discussion of the individuals' needs-analysis often developed into an agreement on needs for the entire staff. Many of the issues, hypotheses and needs were common between similar schools.

Two schools used interview teams and found that two people allowed the interviewee to be more relaxed, rather than being 'locked away' with just the interviewer. Other team members found the activity valuable because it allowed each to question their beliefs and values

concerning professional development. In one of these schools, both persons in the interview team did independent summaries. These were then collated in an effort to reduce interview bias from the interview.

The evaluators then summarised these issues, findings and needs, and sought generalisations from the massive amount of information.

4.4 METHODOLOGY USED FOR WES AND RPTIM SURVEYS

It was decided that the use of the WES and RPTIM surveys in schools would be voluntary. Case study evaluators were to negotiate the use of the instruments with their school staffs. During the case studies, twenty-five schools used the WES survey the RPTIM survey and three used the WES survey only. An additional three secondary colleges and three high schools also completed the WES study but did not take part in the school case studies.

It was decided that in small schools (defined as having fewer than 20 staff members) all teachers would be asked to complete the 'actual' and 'preferred' forms of the WES survey and the RPTIM survey. Each would be administered at different times over a period of approximately three months. In larger schools (20 to 80 staff members), half of the teachers, randomly selected, would be asked to complete the WES 'actual' and half the WES 'preferred' surveys. Usually, about half the staff in these schools, randomly selected, were asked to complete the RPTIM survey. In some cases, all teachers in a school completed all surveys.

The school evaluator had the responsibility of introducing the surveys and requesting co-operation of staff. Often this was done at a staff meeting and teachers were asked to complete the survey at that time. Other evaluators wrote a personal letter to teachers in the school requesting their help in completing the survey and returning it to the school evaluator within a few days. Teachers were asked to complete the surveys as individuals and not to talk about their perceptions with other staff members at that stage. Confidentiality was ensured by the school evaluators and names were not placed on surveys. The surveys were coded by number instead of school name. Teachers were advised that the survey results would be discussed by staff when they were returned to schools.

All surveys were forwarded to the author by schools. Results were quickly collated and the means of each scale on the surveys and a profile (graph) of WES scores were returned to schools. School case-study evaluators used the results as a basis for discussion and as part of the evidence gained during the case study.

4.5 DATA ANALYSIS

4.5.1 WES and RPTIM surveys

After the survey results were returned to schools for school evaluators to use as part of the evidence for the case studies, the data were examined for internal consistency (Alpha reliability coefficient) and discriminant validity (using the mean magnitude of

the correlation of a scale with other scales in the same instrument as a convenient index). Data from both surveys were computer-coded for this purpose. In addition, the WES survey was then cross-validated with other survey samples gained from previous use of the instrument in Australia and the United States. The internal consistency and discriminant validity of both scales are reported in this chapter. A similar process was used for the RPTIM survey and reliability and validity data is reported later in this chapter. In addition, data were checked on the ability to differentiate between school types, actual and preferred perceptions of teachers, and between schools by using ANOVA results.

In addition, teachers' perceptions for both 'actual' and 'preferred' forms of the WES survey and the 'what is' and 'what should be' forms of the RPTIM survey were analysed according to school type (primary, high, district high, secondary college and independent schools). This allowed for the development of means for each type of survey for each school type. The school was used as the basic unit for analysis. As a result, schools could be assessed as 'better than normal' if they performed consistently above the mean for that school type. In addition, the gap between 'actual' and 'preferred' perceptions could be analysed for each school type.

4.5.2 Case study interviews

The most important information base for the school case studies was undoubtedly gained from interviews. Most staff in the schools were

subjected to a lengthy list of questions about their professional needs and their school's staff-development practices.

Since the information was gained from set interviews, the author obtained a good account of teachers' beliefs. Furthermore, in schools where the WES and RPTIM survey results were both 'good', the interview responses of most teachers in that school could be characterised as 'positive'. The opposite applied when WES and RPTIM results in a school were both 'bad'. When the interview responses were compared with answers to certain questions in the case study interview schedule, there was more evidence from which to draw conclusions. The case studies, in a general way, and the interviews specifically, provided evidence that supported the WES and RPTIM results from the schools. This will be further discussed with some case study examples in Chapter 7. Throughout this thesis, supportive evidence documented in the evaluation of professional-development practices will be used to strengthen implications of relationships between certain variables.

In an initial training session for case-study evaluators to help them plan their work, most indicated that they wanted some sort of independent check of their observations so that they could make sure they did not interpret their data through 'rose-coloured glasses'. As a result, the author of this study and a number of academic colleagues completed literature searches to identify and list the characteristics of school climate and staff-development practices, with a view to developing questionnaires. A review was also conducted to establish suitable instruments to measure school climate and staff-development

Table 4
DESCRIPTION OF SUB-SCALES IN WES

SUB-SCALE NAME	DESCRIPTION OF SUB-SCALE	SAMPLE ITEM	MOOS'S CATEGORY
INVOLVEMENT	The extent to which teachers are concerned about and committed to their jobs.	Teachers put quite a lot of effort into what they do. (+)	Relationship
PEER COHESION	The extent to which teachers are friendly and supportive of each other.	Teachers go out of their way to help a new teacher feel comfortable. (+)	Relationship
STAFF SUPPORT	The extent to which senior staff are supportive of teachers and encourage teachers to be supportive of each other.	Senior masters/mistresses often criticise teachers over minor things. (-)	Relationship
AUTONOMY	The extent to which teachers are encouraged to be self-sufficient and to make their own decisions.	Teachers can use their own initiative to do things. (+)	Personal development
TASK ORIENTATION	The extent to which the school administration emphasises good planning, efficiency and encourages teachers to 'get the job done'.	A lot of time is wasted because of inefficiency. (1)	Personal development
WORK PRESSURE	The extent to which the pressure of work dominates the job milieu.	It is very hard to keep up with your workload. (-)	System maintenance and change
CLARITY	The extent to which teachers know what to expect in their daily routines, and how explicitly rules and policies are communicated.	Teachers are often confused about exactly what it is that they are supposed to do. (-)	System maintenance and change
CONTROL	The extent to which the school administration uses rules and pressures to keep teachers under control.	Teachers are expected to conform rather strictly to the rules and customs. (+)	System maintenance and change
INNOVATION	The extent to which variety, change, and new approaches are emphasised in the school.	This place would be one of the first to try out a new idea. (+)	System maintenance and change
PHYSICAL COMFORT	The extent to which the physical surroundings contribute to a pleasant work environment.	The colours and decorations make the place warm and cheerful to work in. (+)	System maintenance and change

Note: Questions on the WES seek either a positive response (circle 'true' on the answer sheet) or a negative response (circle 'false' on the answer sheet) and the scoring of answers takes this into account. The questions in the 'Sample Item' column show this by a (+) or (-) connotation.

practices and this resulted in the identification and selection of the WES and RPTIM surveys, as stated in the previous chapter.

The author of this thesis with the assistance of Dr D. Fisher, Tasmanian State Institute of Technology, made minor wording changes to the WES instrument, during this study. The surveys provided a benchmark against which school evaluators could check their perceptions of school climate and staff-development practices.

4.6 DESCRIPTION OF WES

WES (Moos, 1974(b)) was designed for use in any work-place, and it usefully describes salient features of the teacher's school environment. WES has ten sub-scales: three measuring relationships (involvement, peer cohesion, staff support); two measuring personal development (autonomy, task orientation) and five measuring system maintenance and system change (work pressure, clarity, control, innovation, physical comfort). The instrument consists of nine questions to be answered 'true' or 'false' in each of the ten sub-scales. The questionnaire is described in more detail in Table 4, which provides a description and sample item for each sub-scale and shows the classification of each sub-scale according to Moos's scheme. Furthermore, although WES has been used in a variety of work-places, it appears that until now it has seldom been used to measure teachers' perceptions of their school environments.

The 'actual' survey instrument is included in Appendix 5 and the answer sheet in Appendix 6.

As demonstrated by the sample item of each sub-scale in Table 5, the nine questions for each sub-scale are worded to elicit a positive or a negative response. Positive items on the questionnaire are scored 3 for 'True' and 1 for 'False'. Negative items are scored in the reverse manner. Invalid responses or items not answered are given a score of 2.

The means of all survey respondents were calculated for each school type for each WES sub-scale. In addition to allowing a comparison between school types, this data allows any school to compare its results with others from the same type of school.

In addition to an actual form of the WES survey (or 'real' form in Moos's terminology), which assesses perceptions of what a work environment is actually like, the WES also has a preferred (or 'ideal') form. The preferred form is concerned with goals and values and measures those aspects of the work environment that respondents preferred or regarded as ideal. Item wording is almost identical in the actual and preferred forms except that an item such as 'Activities are well planned' in the actual form would be changed to 'Activities would be well planned' in the preferred form. Having separate actual and preferred forms to describe schools makes possible several interesting research applications analogous to those measuring classroom environments (Fraser, 1985). Such investigations could include differences between actual and preferred school environments, studies of whether teachers and students function better in their preferred school environments, and practical attempts to improve school environments in ways that make them more congruent with teachers' preferences.

In the initial development of work-environment scales, Moos (1981) used several methods to gain a naturalistic understanding of the social environments of work groups and to obtain an initial pool of questionnaire items. For example, individuals were asked about the characteristics of their work groups. Also, a wide variety of different people drafted initial versions of items.

Since the environment described in the original form of WES is that of any work milieu, there was scope in this study to improve the instrument's face validity for use specifically in measuring teachers' perceptions of their school environment. So this investigation used a version of WES in which the word 'people' was changed to 'teachers', the word 'supervisor' was changed to 'senior staff' and the word 'employee' was changed to 'teacher'.

4.6.1 Subsequent WES Studies

4.6.1.1 Form R normative samples and test statistics (Moos, 1986)

In a second edition of the Work Environment Scale Manual (1986), Moos provides additional information on the clinical and consulting use of WES and also an updated and expanded review of research applications.

The real form (Form R) of WES measures perceptions of existing work environments. Normative data were collected for 1,442 employees in representative work groups and 1,607 employees in a variety of health-care work groups. Table 5 provides details of the internal

consistencies (Cronbach's Alpha) for each of the ten WES sub-scales.

Moos commented that:

'the internal consistencies were all found to be in an acceptable range, varying from moderate for peer cohesion to substantial for involvement, work pressure, innovation and physical comfort.'
(Moos, 1986:4)

The ten sub-scale scores were intercorrelated for a sample of 1,045 employees in general and health-care work groups. The sub-scale intercorrelations are provided in Table 6.

Table 5

FORM R: INTERNAL CONSISTENCIES, CORRECTED AVERAGE ITEM-SUB-SCALE CORRELATIONS, TEST-RETEST RELIABILITIES, AND STABILITIES				
Subscales	Internal consistency (N=1045)	Corrected average item sub-scale correlations (N=1045)	1-month test-retest reliability (N=75)	12-month sub-scale stability (N=254)
Involvement	.84	.52	.83	.62
Peer Cohesion	.69	.36	.71	.58
Supervisor Support	.77	.44	.82	.51
Autonomy	.73	.39	.77	.52
Task Orientation	.76	.42	.73	.52
Work Pressure	.80	.47	.76	.63
Clarity	.79	.45	.69	.59
Control	.76	.41	.79	.60
Innovation	.86	.53	.75	.54
Physical Comfort	.81	.49	.78	.61

(Moos, 1986:5)

TABLE 6

FORM R SUB-SCALE INTERCORRELATIONS (N=1045)*

	Peer cohesion	Supervisor support	Autonomy	Task orientation	Work pressure	Clarity	Control	Innovation	Physical comfort
Involvement	53	47	48	54	-03	37	-07	50	30
Peer cohesion		50	37	36	-12	38	-08	37	22
Supervisor support			50	29	-19	45	-19	43	28
Autonomy				27	-08	24	-27	51	19
Task orientation					14	47	22	33	23
Work pressure						-20	19	-03	-23
Clarity							23	23	39
Control								-22	08
Innovation									23

(Moos, 1986:6)

According to Moos,

'The subscale intercorrelations (Table 7) indicate that the subscales measure distinct though somewhat related aspects of work environments. The relationships dimensions are positively correlated to one another and to the Autonomy and Task Orientation subscales. The Innovation and Clarity subscales also show moderately positive correlations with these dimensions. There are negative correlations between these dimensions and the Work Pressure and Control subscales. The intercorrelations account for an average of less than 10 per cent of the subscale variance.'

(Moos, 1986:6)

Moos (1986:9-10) also reported similar findings for reliability and validity in the ideal form (Form I) of the WES to the Form R reviewed above.

4.6.1.2 Gender differences

An adapted version of WES was used by Booth and Lantz (1977) to assess expectations at the time of occupational entry, and perceptions

during training and during on-the-job experiences for 200 naval enlisted men and 200 naval enlisted women working in health-care settings. Moos commented that:

'In general, men entered Navy work environments with somewhat higher expectations than did women, but after experiencing actual work settings, men and women tended to perceive both the training and job environments similarly (see also Hoiberg, 1978).'

(Moos, 1986:7)

Moos concluded that although there may be differences in how men and women perceive individual settings, such differences are not consistent across work environments when variations among work roles (such as school teachers and clerical staff) are controlled.

4.6.2 Validation of WES

Moos (1981) reported validation data for the original form of WES based on its administration to a sample of 624 employees and supervisors in a broad range of work groups (e.g., salesmen, nurses, drivers, maintenance workers) in the USA. In particular, it was found that the internal consistency reliability (alpha coefficients) for various scales ranged from 0.70 to 0.91 and that the magnitude of the scale intercorrelations (which can be used as an index of discriminant validity) ranged from 0.18 to 0.57. Table 7 summarises Moos's (1981) results from the samples of 624 people for each scale's internal consistency (alpha reliability coefficient) and the discriminant validity (using the convenient index of the mean correlation of a scale with the other nine scales).

WES was used for the first time specifically with school teachers in a study conducted among Australian science teachers (Fisher and

TABLE 7. INTERNAL CONSISTENCIES (ALPHA RELIABILITY) AND DISCRIMINANT VALIDITY (MEAN CORRELATIONS WITH OTHER SCALES) FOR ACTUAL AND PREFERRED FORMS OF WES FOR TWO UNITS OF ANALYSIS.

Sub-scale	Unit of analysis	Alpha reliability				Mean correlation with other sub-scales			
		Moos's sample	Science teachers	New sample	New sample	Moos's sample	Science teachers	New sample	New sample
		Actual	Actual	Actual	Pref.	Actual	Actual	Actual	Pref.
Involvement	Indiv School	0.85	0.85	0.76 0.93	0.74 0.91	0.40	0.41	0.35 0.48	0.41 0.50
Peer cohesion	Indiv School	0.70	0.60	0.72 0.95	0.69 0.90	0.37	0.33	0.31 0.46	0.39 0.54
Staff support	Indiv School	0.78	0.66	0.71 0.96	0.68 0.93	0.25	0.29	0.30 0.46	0.36 0.50
Autonomy	Indiv School	0.76	0.61	0.60 0.88	0.55 0.87	0.35	0.27	0.32 0.48	0.33 0.49
Task orientation	Indiv School	0.78	0.78	0.70 0.97	0.60 0.91	0.31	0.34	0.33 0.49	0.34 0.49
Work pressure	Indiv School	0.84	0.74	0.79 0.96	0.70 0.95	0.21	0.16	0.11 0.27	0.28 0.38
Clarity	Indiv School	0.82	0.73	0.70 0.90	0.72 0.95	0.57	0.33	0.30 0.41	0.41 0.54
Control	Indiv School	0.77	0.64	0.64 0.91	0.62 0.90	0.18	0.18	0.17 0.29	0.11 0.27
Innovation	Indiv School	0.91	0.84	0.84 0.98	0.74 0.95	0.34	0.29	0.29 0.44	0.35 0.47
Physical comfort	Indiv School	0.83	0.70	0.71 0.93	0.72 0.94	0.24	0.26	0.23 0.38	0.36 0.45
Sample Sizes	Indiv School	624	114	599 34	543 34	624	114	599 34	543 34

Fraser, 1983). The slightly modified version of the WES was administered to a sample of 114 science teachers in 35 secondary schools in Tasmania. This sample provided representative coverage of male and female teachers, of teachers with varying amounts of teaching experience, of teachers in state government schools and independent schools, and of schools in city and country areas. Data from this sample of science teachers were analysed to provide estimates of each sub-scale's internal consistency (alpha coefficients) and discriminant validity (mean correlations of a scale with the other nine sub-scales). Table 7 indicates that the KR-20 coefficients for the different WES sub-scales ranged from 0.60 to 0.85 for the survey of science teachers. These figures are generally only a little lower than Moos's estimates shown in the same table. The magnitudes of the mean correlation of a sub-scale with the other nine sub-scales in this table ranged from 0.16 to 0.41 for the sample of science teachers. These values are a little lower than those (namely, 0.18 to 0.57) obtained by Moos, and therefore suggest better discriminant validity. Overall the data in Table 7 indicates that the work-environment scales display satisfactory internal consistency and measure distinct, although somewhat overlapping, aspects of school environment.

Cross-validation data for WES, which supported the promising validation information obtained from the sample of science teachers, was collected during the investigation described in this thesis. The new sample was broader than the previous one in that it covered independent as well as government schools and it included primary schools (grades K-6), high schools (grades 7-10), district high schools (grades K-10), and secondary colleges (grades 11-12). Whereas

the previous study involved only the actual form of WES, the new sample responded both to the actual form (what the environment is

TABLE 8

NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN EACH TYPE OF SCHOOL WHO COMPLETED THE WES SURVEYS			
School type	Number of schools	Number of teachers	
		Actual	Preferred
<u>Government schools</u>			
Primary (K-6)	9	108	107
High (7-10)	7	147	121
District (K-10)	6	108	99
Secondary College (11-12)	6	138	116
<u>Independent schools</u>			
Primary (K-6)	2	22	22
Secondary (7-12)	4	76	78
Totals	34	599	543

(Note: Sample for Table 7 statistics).

actually like) and the preferred form (what teachers would prefer the environment to be like). Table 8 outlines the sample in terms of the number of schools and teachers involved from each school type. The total sample consisted of 34 schools, with 599 teachers responding to the actual form of WES and 543 teachers responding to the preferred form. For this sample KR-20 reliability coefficients ranged from 0.55 to 0.84 and mean correlation of a scale with the other scales ranged from 0.11 to 0.35. These values again are a little lower than those of

both previous samples obtained by Moos (1981) and by Fisher and Fraser (1983), and therefore suggest still better discriminant validity.

Table 7 also reports internal consistency and discriminant validity statistics for the new sample for both the actual and preferred form of WES. Also, because some applications of WES are likely to involve the school mean rather than the individual teacher as the unit of analysis, internal consistency and discriminant validity data are reported separately for the individual and the school mean. It is noteworthy from Table 7 that the reliability for school means is typically greater than 0.9 for both the actual and preferred forms of WES scales. This suggests good internal consistency of data. Overall, the data in Table 7 compare favourably with those obtained with the previous samples and attest to the internal consistency and discriminant validity of the WES in either its actual and preferred forms and when either the individual teacher or the school mean is the unit of analysis.

Another desirable characteristic of the actual form of the instrument is that it is capable of differentiating between the perceptions of teachers in different schools. That is, teachers within the same school should perceive it relatively similarly, while mean perceptions from within schools should vary from school to school. This characteristic was explored for each sub-scale of the WES's actual form for the new sample of 599 teachers in 34 schools. A one-way ANOVA was performed for each sub-scale, with school membership as the main effect. Table 9 shows that each scale differentiated significantly ($p < 0.001$) between perceptions of teachers in different

schools and that the eta² statistic, which is the ratio of 'between' to 'total' sums of squares (an estimate of the proportion of variance in WES scores attributable to school membership) ranged from 0.18 for autonomy to 0.40 for innovation or physical comfort.

Table 9

DIFFERENCES IN TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF ACTUAL ENVIRONMENT, BETWEEN SCHOOLS AND WITHIN SCHOOLS, MEASURED BY ANOVA.					
Scale	SS Between	SS Within	df	F	Eta ²
Involvement	3216.5	8407.9	33, 565	6.6*	0.28
Peer cohesion	2815.5	9400.9	33, 565	5.1*	0.23
Staff support	1869.3	7410.6	33, 565	4.3*	0.20
Autonomy	1323.8	5848.9	33, 565	3.9*	0.18
Task orientation	1687.9	6840.5	33, 565	4.2*	0.20
Work pressure	4200.8	10743.6	33, 565	6.7*	0.28
Clarity	2862.9	9026.8	33, 565	5.4*	0.24
Control	3684.1	6713.3	33, 565	9.4*	0.35
Innovation	7559.5	11535.4	33, 565	11.2*	0.40
Physical comfort	5470.9	8312.3	33, 565	11.3*	0.40
* p<0.001					

The implications of results of the WES survey for this thesis are discussed in Chapter 5.

4.7 DESCRIPTION OF RPTIM MODEL

Until recently there were few, if any, research-based models that described the process of designing staff development programs for teachers. Thus we lacked a framework or measure with which to compare

programs. Then, in the United States, Steven R. Thompson developed what appeared to be a useful model.

Thompson's model is:

'a definite attempt to describe a research-based process for designing in-service education that is both systematic and comprehensive.'

(Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson 1982(a):28)

The model originally was described in the 1981 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

In the investigation described in this thesis, the purpose of using this instrument was to establish:

- . whether differences exist between actual and preferred approaches to staff development;
- . how school types (primary, grades K-6; high, grades 7-10; secondary colleges, grades 11-12) vary in their professional-development practices;
- . whether size and/or location of schools affect teachers' perceptions of staff-development practices;
- . what similarities and differences exist between Australian and American findings;
- . whether the use of the RPTIM survey could assist staff to enhance staff-development practices in schools.

The RPTIM model was based upon the ten basic assumptions or beliefs that are grounded in the research literature. They are listed in Table 10.

TABLE 10

THE RPTIM MODEL - BELIEFS
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. All school personnel need in-service education throughout their careers. 2. Significant improvement in educational practice takes considerable time and long-term, in-service programs. 3. In-service education should focus on improving the quality of school programs. 4. Educators are motivated to learn new things when they have some control over their learning and are free from threat. 5. Educators vary widely in their competencies and their readiness to learn. 6. Professional growth requires commitment to new performance norms. 7. School climate influences the success of professional development. 8. The school is the most appropriate unit or target of change in education. 9. The Education Department has the primary responsibility for providing the resources for in-service training. 10. The principal is the key element for adoption and continued use of new practices and programs in a school. <p style="text-align: right;">(Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson, 1982(a):27-8).</p> <p>(Note: belief nine has been adapted for the Tasmanian education context).</p>

Wood (1985) added a further belief in an application of the model which suggests that school improvement is best achieved through staff development. This belief is:

'Effective in-service programs must be based upon research, theory, and the best educational practice.'

(Wood, 1985:9)

Overall, the RPTIM model describes thirty-eight practices which Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson suggest should be used in designing in-service programs. These practices are described under five stages and the practices within each stage were developed through an analysis and synthesis of the literature of best practices and research related to staff development. According to Wood et al. the RPTIM model was:

'extrapolated from what was known about staff development, in-service education, organisation development, educational change, adult learning, effective leadership behaviour and school climate.'

(Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson 1982(b):1)

The 38 practices are shown in Table 11. A brief description of each stage follows.

READINESS emphasises the selection and understanding of, and commitment to, new behaviours by a school staff or group of educators.

PLANNING focuses on developing specific plans for an in-service program to be implemented over three to five years and designed to achieve the desired changes or professional practices selected in stage 1.

In the TRAINING stage, the plans are translated into practice. This stage responds very directly to what is known about adult learning.

IMPLEMENTATION means ensuring that the training becomes a continuing part of the professional behaviour of teachers and administrators and thus the new knowledge and skills learned in in-service training are used at work. During implementation participants have access to support services to help them adopt and implement what they learned in training, in their daily work.

TABLE 11

THE RPTIM MODEL PRACTICES

Stage I: Readiness

1. A positive school climate is developed before other staff development efforts are attempted.
2. Goals for school improvement are written collaboratively by teachers, parents, and senior staff in schools.
3. The school has a written list of goals for the improvement of school programs during the next three to five years.
4. The school staff adopts and supports goals for the improvement of school programs.
5. Current school practices are examined to determine which ones are congruent with the school's goals for improvement before staff development activities are planned.
6. Current educational practices not yet found in the school are examined to determine which ones are congruent with the school's goals for improvement before staff development activities are planned.
7. The school staff identifies specific plans to achieve the school's goals for improvement.
8. Leadership and support during the initial stage of staff development activity are the responsibility of the principal and regional and State administration and services staff.

Stage II: Planning

9. Differences between desired and actual practices in the school are examined to identify the in-service needs of the staff.
10. Planning of staff development activities relies, in part, on information gathered directly from school staff members.
11. In-service planners use information about the learning styles of participants when planning staff development activities.
12. Staff development programs include objectives for in-service activities

covering as much as five years.

13. The resources (time, money, people and materials) available for use in staff development are identified prior to planning in-service activities.
14. Staff development programs include plans for activities to be conducted during the following three to five years.
15. Specific objectives are written for staff development activities.
16. Staff development objectives include objectives for attitude development (new outlooks and feelings).
17. Staff development objectives include objectives for increased knowledge (new information and understanding).
18. Staff development objectives include objectives for skill development (new work behaviours).
19. Leadership during the planning of in-service programs is shared among teachers and administrators.

Stage III: Training

20. Staff development activities include the use of learning teams in which two to seven participants share and discuss learning experiences.
21. Individual school staff members choose objectives for their own professional learning.
22. Individual school staff members choose the staff development activities in which they participate.
23. Staff development activities include experiential activities in which participants try out new behaviours and techniques.
24. Peers help to teach one another by serving as in-service leaders.
25. School principals participate in staff development activities with their staffs.
26. Leaders of staff development activities are selected according to their expertise rather than their position.
27. As participants in staff development activities become increasingly compe-

tent, leadership behaviour becomes less directive or task-oriented.

28. As participants in staff development activities become increasingly confident in their abilities, the leader transfers increasing responsibility to the participants.

Stage IV: Implementation

29. After participating in in-service activities, participants have access to support services to help implement new behaviours as part of their regular work.
30. School staff members who attempt to implement new learnings are recognised for their efforts.
31. The leaders of staff development activities visit the job setting, when needed, to help the in-service participants refine or review previous learning.
32. School staff members use peer supervision to assist one another in implementing new work behaviours.
33. Resources (time, money, people and materials) are allocated to support the implementation of new practices following staff development activities (funds to purchase new instructional materials, time for planning, and so forth).
34. The school principal actively supports efforts to implement changes in professional behaviour.

Stage V: Maintenance

35. Senior staff systematically monitor the implementation of new teaching practices.
36. School staff members use systematic techniques of self-monitoring to maintain new work behaviours.
37. Student feedback is used to monitor new practices.
38. Responsibility for the maintenance of new school practices is shared by both teachers and administrators.

Note: Items 2, 8, 13, 33 and 35 were slightly adapted as shown for the Tasmanian survey.

[Wood, McQuarrie, Thompson, 1982(a)28-29]

MAINTENANCE begins as new behaviours are integrated into daily practice. The aim of this final stage is to ensure that once a change in performance has been made, the improved performance will continue.

An instrument to measure the staff-development practices outlined in this model was developed and is shown in Appendix 8. It invited responses to each of the 38 statements of practice in one of four categories: 'almost never', 'sometimes', 'often', and 'almost always'. Those surveyed were also asked to respond to each statement on two scales: 'What exists' and 'What should be'.

4.7.1 Validation of the RPTIM Model

In the United States, Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson completed a national survey of US professors and practitioners in the spring of 1981. Their sample is described later in Chapter 6. They then analysed the data

'using descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations. Simple "T" tests were employed to assess the differences between the two expert groups on their "what should be" responses and on their "what is" responses. To identify those practices which were neglected a discrepancy analysis procedure was adapted from a procedure described by Hartly (1975).'

(Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson, 1982(b):6)

Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson (p.8) defined a staff-development practice as 'neglected' if there was a difference of 1.00 or more between the means for 'what should be' and 'what exists'.

Based on the American findings, Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson concluded the instrument had a face validity and:

- . the 38 practices which defined the RPTIM model were valued and appropriate to guide staff development in schools;
- . the practices were generally neglected and not practised when they had a difference of 1.00 between the means for 'what exists' and 'what should be' to the extent they were valued when staff development is planned and delivered;
- . more attention needs to be paid to 'readiness', 'implementation' and 'maintenance' in staff development programs.

(Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson, 1982(b):11)

4.7.2 Validation Data for use of RPTIM Model in Tasmania

In this study a sample of 380 teachers used the RPTIM survey in 25 schools. It was administered in the context of school case studies described in this chapter. Details of the number of teachers and schools in each school type are provided in Table 12.

Table 13 provides validation data on the Tasmanian sample both for 'what exists' and 'what should be' responses. It indicates that the alpha reliability (internal consistencies) for the five scales range between 0.77 to 0.85 on 'what exists' and 0.73 to 0.82 on 'what should be'. These were all found to be in an acceptable range and would testify to the internal consistency or reliability of the data between the five RPTIM stages. These values, which do not incorporate a correction for attenuation to compensate for imperfect scale reliability, support the concurrent validity of both forms of the

TABLE 12

NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN EACH TYPE OF SCHOOL COMPLETING THE RPTIM SURVEY		
SCHOOL TYPE	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	NUMBER OF TEACHERS
<u>Government schools</u>		
Primary (K-6)	9	101
High	3	57
District (K-10)	6	93
Secondary College (11 & 12)	2	52
<u>Independent schools</u>		
Primary (K-6)	2	19
Secondary (7-12)	3	58
TOTALS	25	380

RPTIM survey. The mean correlation with other scales indicates a range between 0.52 and 0.58 for 'what exists' and 0.45 and 0.58 for 'what should be' indicate lower discriminant validity. However, these results would confirm the finding of Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson that the instrument had a face validity.

In the area of BELIEFS (see Table 10) respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with each statement on a four-point scale, 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. The beliefs scored an alpha reliability result of 0.80 indicating good internal consistency.

TABLE 13

INTERNAL CONSISTENCY (ALPHA) RELIABILITY AND DISCRIMINANT VALIDITY (MEAN CORRELATION WITH OTHER SCALES) FOR 'WHAT EXISTS' AND 'WHAT SHOULD BE'				
	<u>Alpha reliability</u>		<u>Mean correlation with other scales</u>	
	What exists	What should be	What exists	What should be
Readiness	0.83	0.73	0.52	0.45
Planning	0.85	0.82	0.55	0.52
Training	0.77	0.74	0.56	0.56
Implementation	0.82	0.78	0.58	0.58
Maintenance	0.76	0.74	0.54	0.55
Sample Size	380	380	380	380

TABLE 14

ANOVA RESULTS FOR SCHOOL MEMBERSHIP DIFFERENCES IN TEACHER PERCEPTIONS ON 'WHAT IS' FORM OF RPTIM					
Scale	SS Between	SS Within	df	F	Eta ²
Readiness	2429.2	7,719.7	24	4.6*	0.24
Planning	3440.3	22,212.7	24	2.1*	0.13
Training	779.1	5,892.6	24	1.8*	0.12
Implementation	720.0	4,823.5	24	2.1*	0.13
Maintenance	364.1	2,186.2	24	2.4*	0.14
p < 0.05					

A one-way ANOVA was performed for each sub-scale of the 'what is' form of the RPTIM survey, with school membership as its main effect. Table 14 shows that each scale differentiated significantly ($p < 0.05$)

between perceptions of teachers in different schools and that the η^2 statistic (an estimate of the proportion of variance in RPTIM scores attributable to school membership) ranged from 0.12 for training to 0.24 for readiness, is provided as an estimate of the amount of variance in RPTIM scores attributable to school membership. These findings are outlined in Table 14.

These tests indicated that the data gathered about teachers' perceptions were reliable.

4.8 METHODOLOGY USED TO DEVELOP SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT STRATEGIES

4.8.1 How personnel for seminars were selected

The procedures used to develop strategies for school improvement in Tasmanian schools were as follows:

- (1) WES and RPTIM results were analysed to identify 'good' schools. (The method used was described in Chapter 7.)
- (2) Invitations were sent to the school evaluator and principal of these schools to attend a two-day seminar in April 1985, to develop strategies for school improvement. Schools had previously been provided with the 'actual' and 'preferred' WES and RPTIM results.

- (3) Some superintendents and regional directors with expertise in these areas were also invited.
- (4) Each participant was asked to list strategies for improving each WES scale and RPTIM stage before attending the seminar (that is, to list ways of closing the gap between 'actual' and 'preferred'). Most participants discussed these strategies with members of their school staff. This material was brought to the seminar by participants.
- (5) The author examined the school case studies of these schools to identify successful policies, practices and strategies in these areas.

Due to the anticipated differences in the strategies that primary and secondary schools might use to improve their schools (as described in the previous section), two seminars were held. The first was for personnel from primary and district-high schools, and the second for personnel from high schools, secondary colleges and independent schools. There was some overlap of personnel from primary and high schools in both seminars. The seminars were attended by teachers and administrators who were very skilled practitioners and of senior status in schools. They were selected from schools on the criteria of existing 'good' school climate and staff-development practices. Essentially the strategies developed reinforced the fourth area of Purkey and Smith's guidelines.

Purkey and Smith's guidelines:

The findings of the effective schools' research square with common sense and with the experience of practitioners. While neither commonsense nor experience guarantees correctness, they do strengthen the case beyond the realm that can be reached by theory alone.'

(Purkey and Smith, 1985:356)

4.8.2 How the seminars were conducted

The first morning of each seminar was taken up with a description of the theoretical background for the survey instruments, and an analysis of the WES and RPTIM results gained in Tasmanian schools in 1984.

The remaining one-and-a-half days of each seminar involved:

- . brainstorming each of the ten sections of the WES survey and the five stages of the RPTIM survey;
- . establishing priorities for the ideas and statements presented for the WES survey; and
- . refining and clarifying each statement or strategy presented for the WES survey.

Most of the working sessions were based on an adaptation of the nominal group process.

4.9 CONCLUSIONS

This chapter provided an outline of the methodology used for gathering information for questions of research 1 to 7, addressed in this study. This involved stating the criteria on which a

representative sample of Tasmanian schools was selected and a justification of the case study approach to examine professional-development practices in a school setting. Furthermore, the method of data collection and an assessment of reliability and validity of the information gathered during the case studies was provided. The interview schedule and methodology used in all case studies was reviewed. Data from some case studies will be included in Chapter 7, to explore the relationship between school climate and professional-development practices.

Furthermore, the method by which the WES and RPTIM surveys were administered in the context of these case studies was discussed. Both surveys were fully described in this chapter. Noteworthy features of the WES instrument include its adequate coverage of Moos's three dimensions for conceptualising all human environments, its validity for use in schools, and its economy, in that teachers take only ten to fifteen minutes to respond to all ten scales. Administration of WES to samples of teachers has attested to each scale's internal consistency and discriminant validity in either its 'actual' or 'preferred' forms and with either the individual teacher or the school mean as the unit of analysis. Also the 'actual' form of each scale was found to differentiate between the perceptions of teachers in different schools. Noteworthy features of the RPTIM instrument include agreement by teachers for the ten beliefs or assumptions on which the RPTIM model was constructed, the perceived adequate coverage of staff-development practices, its face validity for use in schools, and its economy, in that teachers take approximately fifteen minutes to respond to the survey. Administration of the RPTIM survey to 380

teachers has attested to each scale's internal consistency and discriminant validity in either its 'actual' or 'preferred' forms and with either individual teachers or the school mean as the unit of analysis.

From these data it can be concluded that both instruments possess face validity and are useful instruments for measuring school climates and staff-development practices, respectively. Chapter 5 discusses the results obtained in the WES survey and Chapter 6 discusses the results obtained in the RPTIM survey in this study.

In addition, the methodology used to develop approaches to enhance the quality of school climate and staff-development practices and answer research question 7 is described. Chapter 8 further discusses this question.

CHAPTER 5

SCHOOL CLIMATE

5.1 THE WES RESULTS

As outlined in Chapter 4, the WES survey was used in school case-studies evaluating professional-development practices in Tasmania. This chapter will focus on the results obtained from the WES survey.

The main purpose of using the WES survey in this study was to gather information about research questions 2, 4 and 5. These are:

- . what differences exist between teachers' perceptions of actual and preferred school climate?
- . what differences exist among schools when classified according to type, size and location?
- . what differences exist between actual and preferred staff-development practices and climates in Tasmanian schools?

Initially the responses to the WES survey were broken down according to school type to establish whether school climate is better in some types of schools than others. Here, 'better' means having higher scores on climate dimensions measured by WES. The following

school types were considered: primary school (grades K-6), high school (grades 7-10), district high school (grades K-10), secondary colleges (grades 11-12), independent schools (7-12), independent primary schools (grades K-6). The number of schools in each school type was listed in Table 8.

When the data were analysed according to school type, there was little difference between teachers' perceptions of the 'preferred' or ideal work environment. That is, teachers in all types of schools prefer a similar environment. The degrees of difference between teachers' preferences for all school types are shown in Table 15. Here the differences between the means of the highest- and lowest-scoring

TABLE 15

WES SUB-SCALE ITEMS - RANGE OF ACTUAL AND PREFERRED MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCHOOL TYPES*		
Sub-scales of WES	<u>Actual</u>	<u>Preferred</u>
Involvement	4.0	1.4
Peer cohesion	3.0	2.1
Staff support	3.0	1.3
Autonomy	1.9	1.0
Task orientation	2.6	0.9
Work pressure	5.0	1.6
Clarity	5.6	2.5
Control	4.2	3.2
Innovation	5.8	3.0
Physical comfort	5.2	1.3

* In each WES sub-scale the range of differences for all school types for 'actual' and 'preferred' are shown. As an example, for Involvement 'actual', the highest mean of school types was primary, with 25.4, and the lowest was secondary colleges with 21.4. The range of means was thus 4.0. For 'preferred', the highest was district highs at 26.6 and the lowest was secondary colleges at 25.2, with a range of means of 1.4.

school-types (primary, high, district high, secondary colleges, independent schools) are shown for 'preferred' and 'actual' work environments.

When profiles (graphs) of the WES sub-scale items were drawn, there was remarkable similarity among 'preferred' results for school types. This is indicated graphically in Figure 5. (Only four school types are shown, to avoid confusion of lines.) 'Preferred' results were also consistent for schools within each school type. This is indicated graphically in Figure 6 for four high schools. Analysis of Figures 5 and 6, or of 'preferred' graphs of schools in any school type, indicate that teachers in schools vary little in their perceptions about 'preferred' environments. This establishes that there is agreement among teachers about preferred environments, regardless of school, school type, school size, or location. It also provides a benchmark for comparison between 'actual' and 'preferred' environments.

As seen in Table 15, considerable variation occurs between school types in the 'actual' work environment. Thus teachers in different types of schools perceive that some types of school have a better work environment than others.

When profiles (graphs) of 'actual' responses to WES items were drawn there was considerable variation between school types. This is demonstrated graphically in Figure 7 for four school types. This was also indicated in the range of school types' actual means in Table 15.

When examining responses from schools within each school type, large variations occurred in the 'actual' scores. This was depicted in Figure 8 for four high schools. This was significant, as the variation of schools in the 'preferred' scores was minimal. Since teachers in all schools prefer a similar environment, the variation in 'actual' scores of similar schools within a school type provides a measure of how well teachers believe aspects of the school environment are functioning at that time. It also allowed a comparison with other schools of the same type.

5.2 ACTUAL AND PREFERRED COMPARISONS

Studies of the relationship between people and their workplaces have found that efficiency, job satisfaction and productivity improve when people work in an environment that they believe is ideally suited to them and their work. (Hunt 1975, Rentoul and Fraser 1979; Fraser and Rentoul 1980; Fraser 1981b; Fisher 1982; Fraser and Deer 1983; Fraser and Fisher 1983).

An examination of the data obtained in this investigation demonstrated that there was little difference between teachers' perceptions of the 'preferred' or ideal work environment no matter what the school type. That is, teachers in all types of schools prefer a similar environment. Furthermore, the results were consistent among schools within each school type. It is apparent that teachers agree about preferred environments, regardless of school type, size or location.

FIGURE 5. WES - SUB-SCALE MEANS FOR SCHOOL TYPES - 1984 - PREFERRED FORM

WORK ENVIRONMENT SCALE (WES)
TASMANIAN SCHOOLS 1984

Preferred

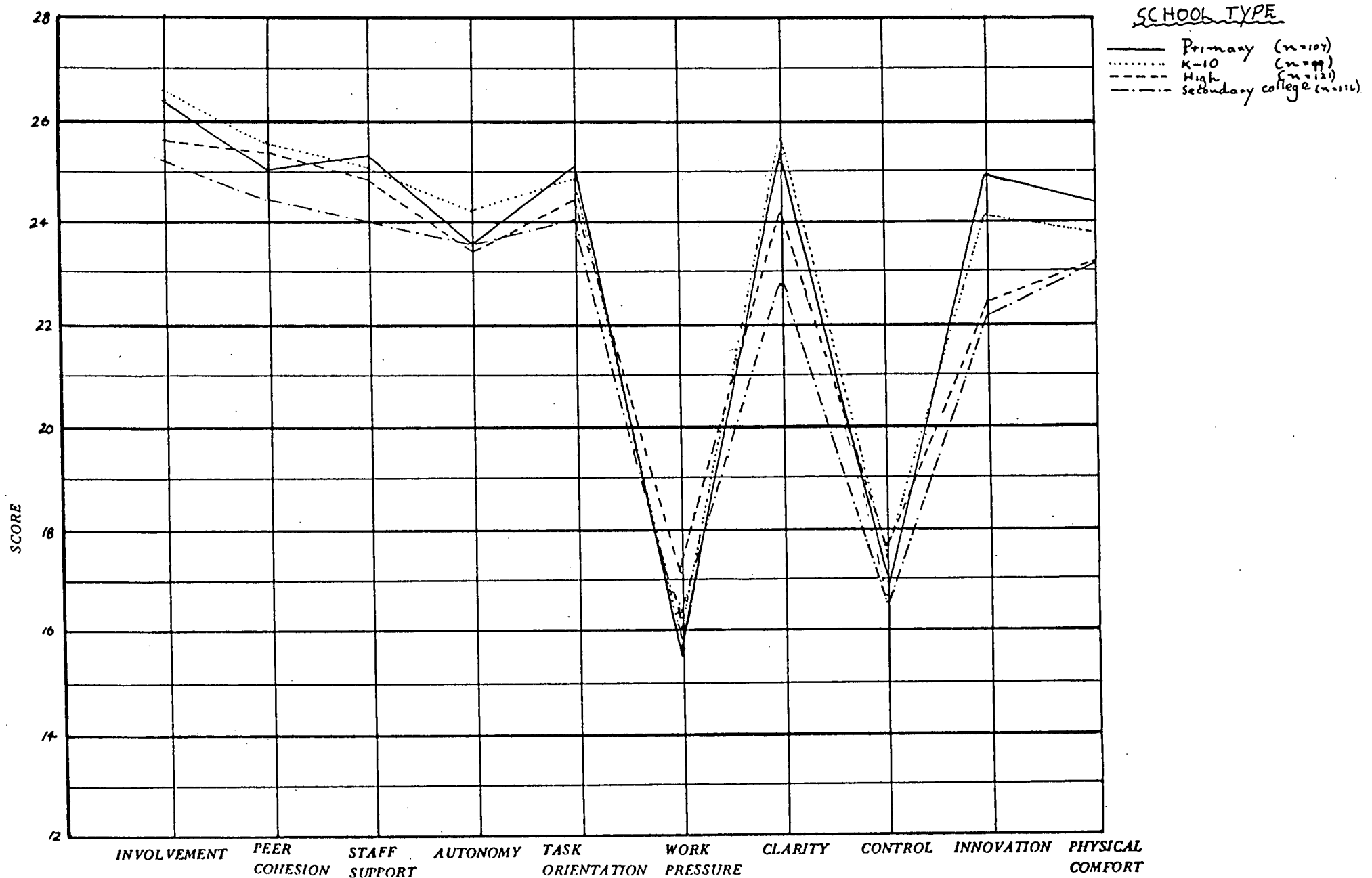


FIGURE 6. WES - SUB-SCALE MEANS FOR FOUR HIGH SCHOOLS - 1984 - PREFERRED FORM

WORK ENVIRONMENT SCALE (WES)
TASMANIAN SCHOOLS 1984

Preferred

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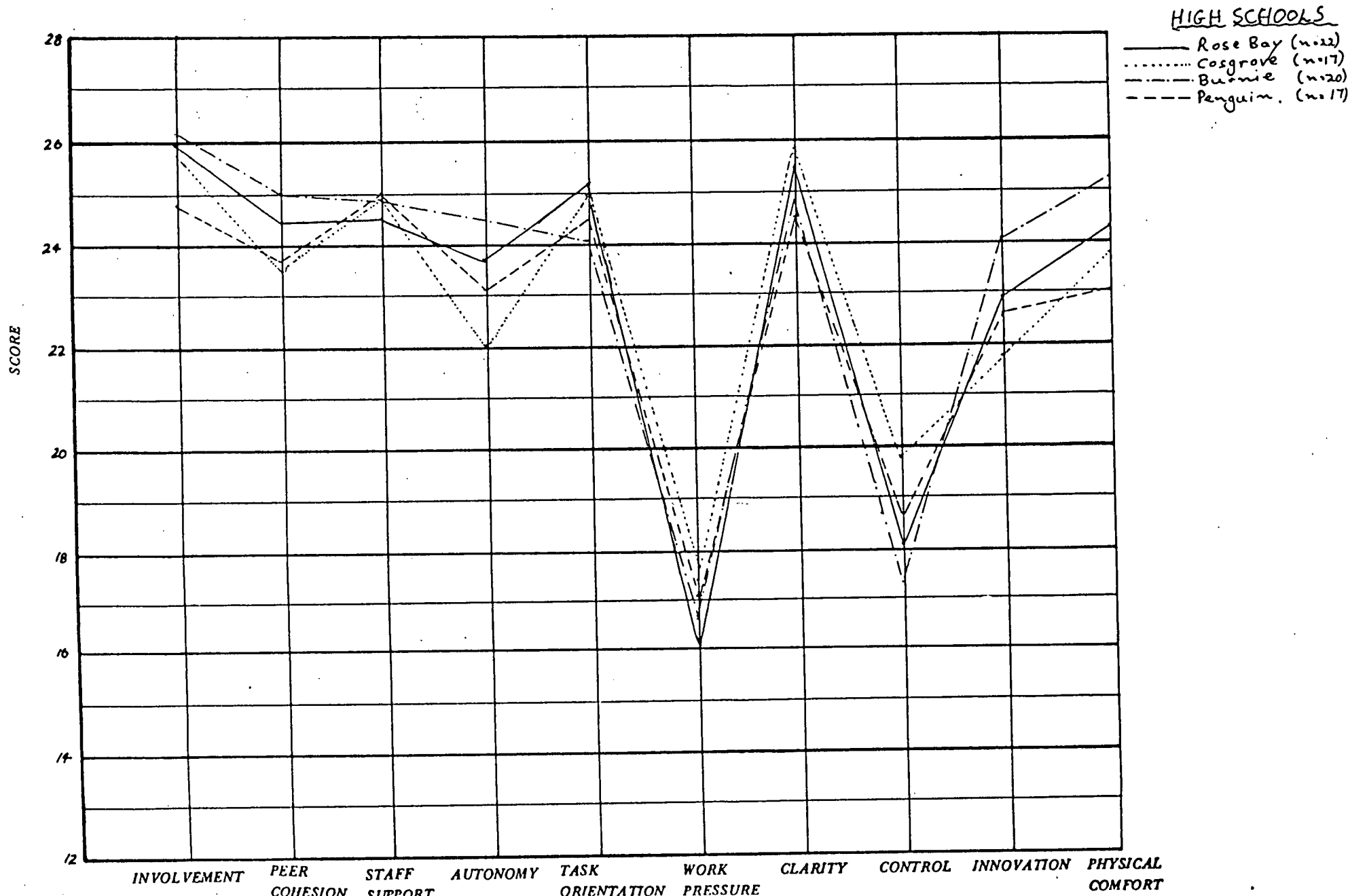


FIGURE 7. WES - SUB-SCALE MEANS FOR SCHOOL TYPES - 1984 - ACTUAL FORM

WORK ENVIRONMENT SCALE (WES)
TASMANIAN SCHOOLS 1984

Actual

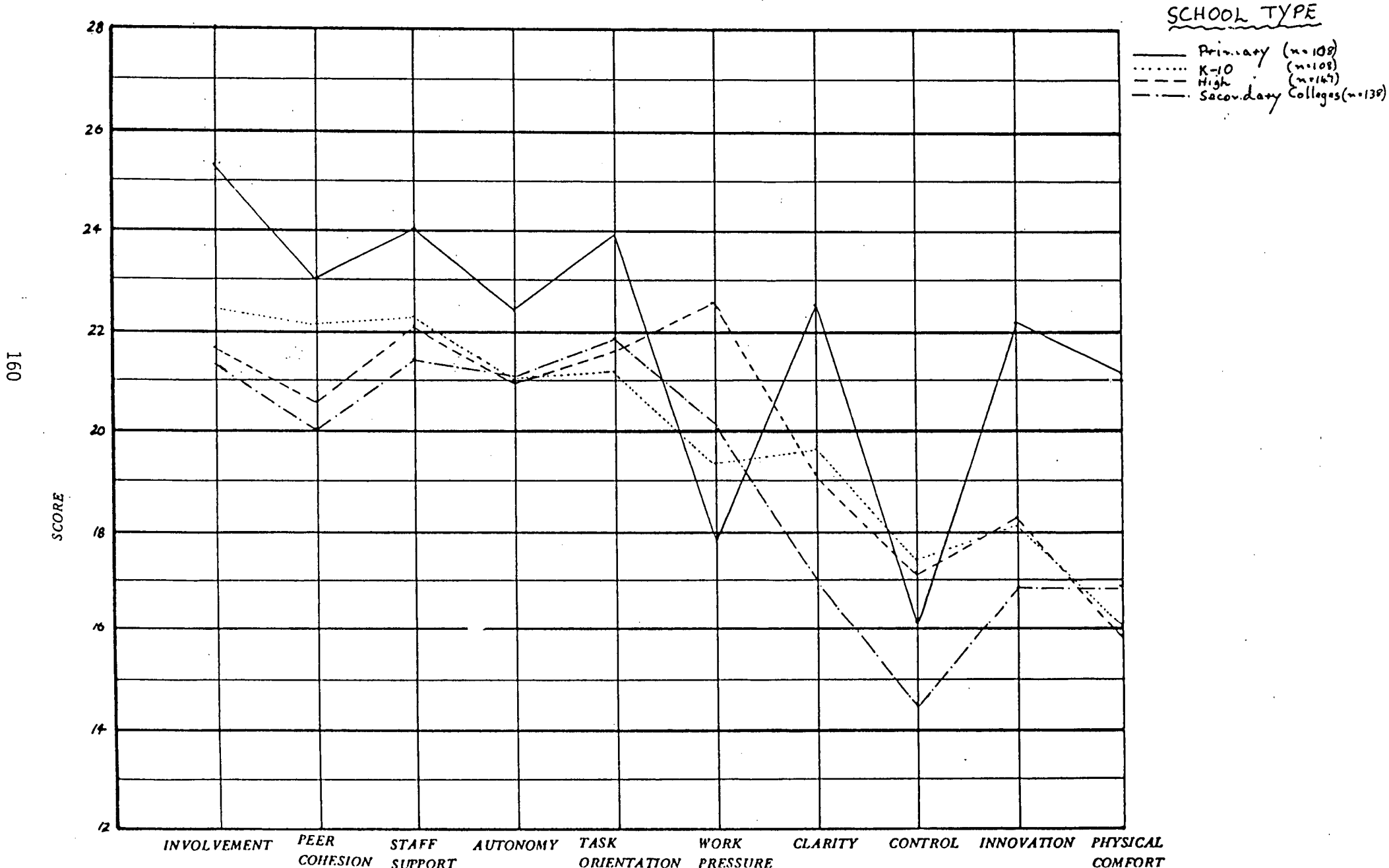
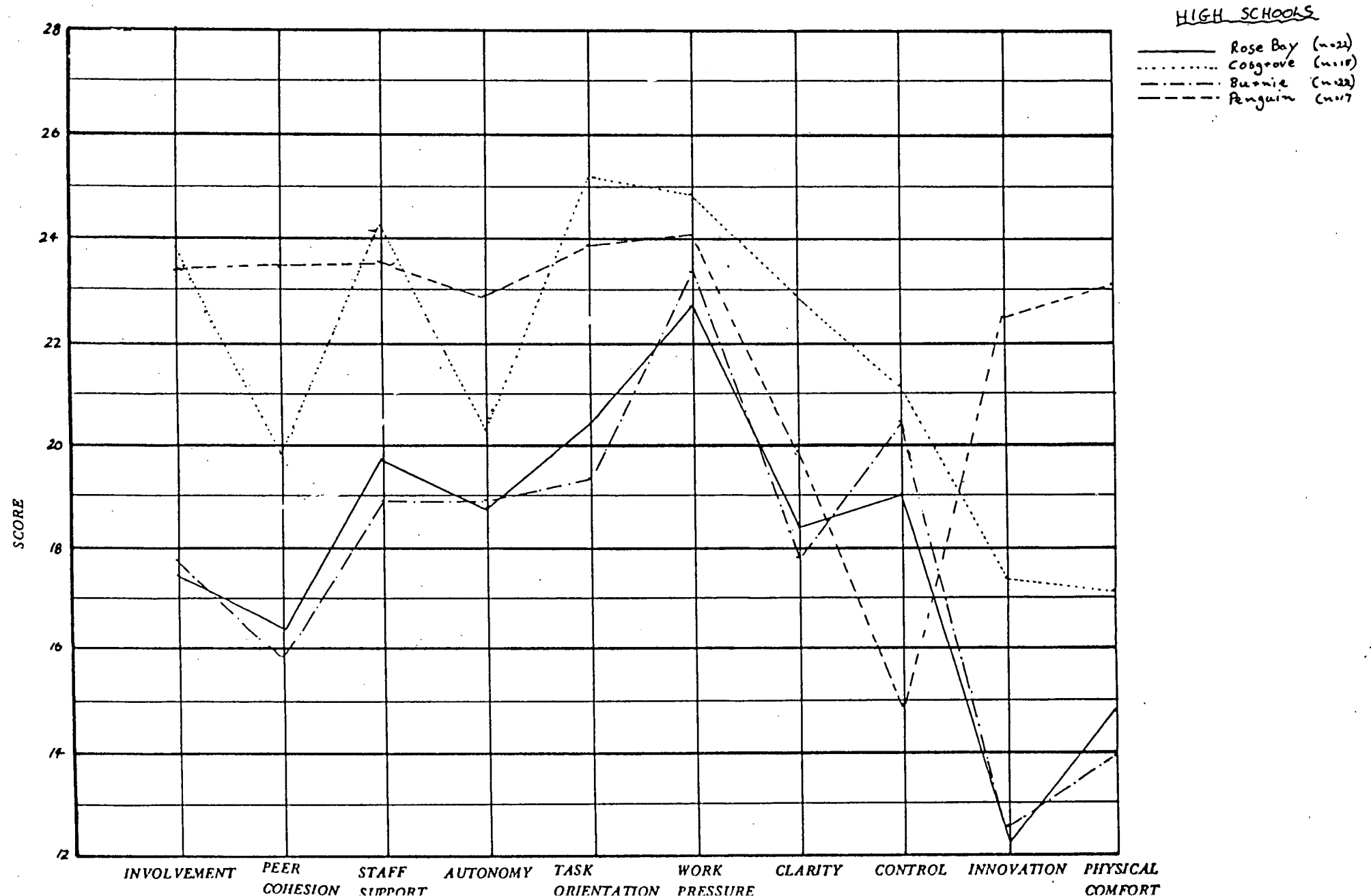


FIGURE 8. WES - SUB-SCALE MEANS FOR FOUR HIGH SCHOOLS - 1984 - ACTUAL FORM

WORK ENVIRONMENT SCALE (WES)
TASMANIAN SCHOOLS 1984



However, considerable variation occurred between school types in the actual work environment. Thus, teachers in different types of schools perceive that some types of school have a better work environment than others. The most favourable working environment was reported in primary schools, for nine of the ten sub-scales examined in the WES survey. The exception was the control sub-scale (see comment about significance later in this chapter), where the highest scores were in independent schools and the lowest in secondary colleges. Again favourable working environments were found in both small and large primary schools, and in schools from both country and urban centres. Thus, teachers' perceptions of a more favourable working environment of the 'actual' WES form, could not be substantiated statistically according to size or location of the school.

It is argued then, that teachers work better in their preferred environment. Thus, the smaller the gap between the 'actual' and 'preferred' means for any aspect of the work environment, the more favourable the school climate. As can be seen in Figures 9 and 10, the gap between 'actual' and 'preferred' in primary schools is much smaller than the gap in high schools. This illustrates the degree of difference between scores in these two school types. Table 16 provides the statistical data from which Figures 9 and 10 were drawn.

The differences between primary and high schools were tested statistically for each work-environment scale. The first step involved performing a one-way ANOVA in which the set of ten environment sub-scales constituted the dependent variables and the type of school

(high versus primary) constituted the main effect. Because the multivariate test using Wilk's lambda criterion was statistically significant ($p < 0.01$), the univariate ANOVA results were examined for each of the 10 sub-scales individually. Differences were insignificant ($p < 0.05$) only for the Control sub-scale. In the remaining nine sub-scales, differences were statistically significant at the $p < 0.01$ level of confidence. Table 16 provides the mean scores for sub-scales of WES for primary and high schools only. Figure 12 presents this data in a graph.

TABLE 16

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN 'ACTUAL' AND 'PREFERRED' MEANS AS MEASURED BY WES FOR PRIMARY AND HIGH SCHOOLS.				
<u>Dimensions of WES</u>	<u>PRIMARY</u> (GRADES 1-6)		<u>HIGH</u> (GRADES 7-10)	
	<u>ACTUAL</u>	<u>PREFERRED</u>	<u>ACTUAL</u>	<u>PREFERRED</u>
Involvement	25.4	26.4	21.7	25.6
Peer cohesion	23.0	25.1	20.7	24.5
Staff support	24.0	25.4	22.1	24.8
Autonomy	22.4	23.6	21.0	23.5
Task orientation	23.9	24.7	21.7	24.5
Work pressure	17.9	15.6	22.6	17.2
Clarity	22.6	25.2	19.2	24.2
Control	16.2	16.9	17.2	17.6
Innovation	22.3	24.8	18.3	22.4
Physical comfort	21.2	24.4	15.8	23.1
Number of Teachers	115	114	174	167
Number of Schools	10	10	8	8
(Docker and Fisher, 1985(c):7)				

FIGURE 9. WES - ACTUAL AND PREFERRED SUB-SCALE MEANS FOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS - 1984

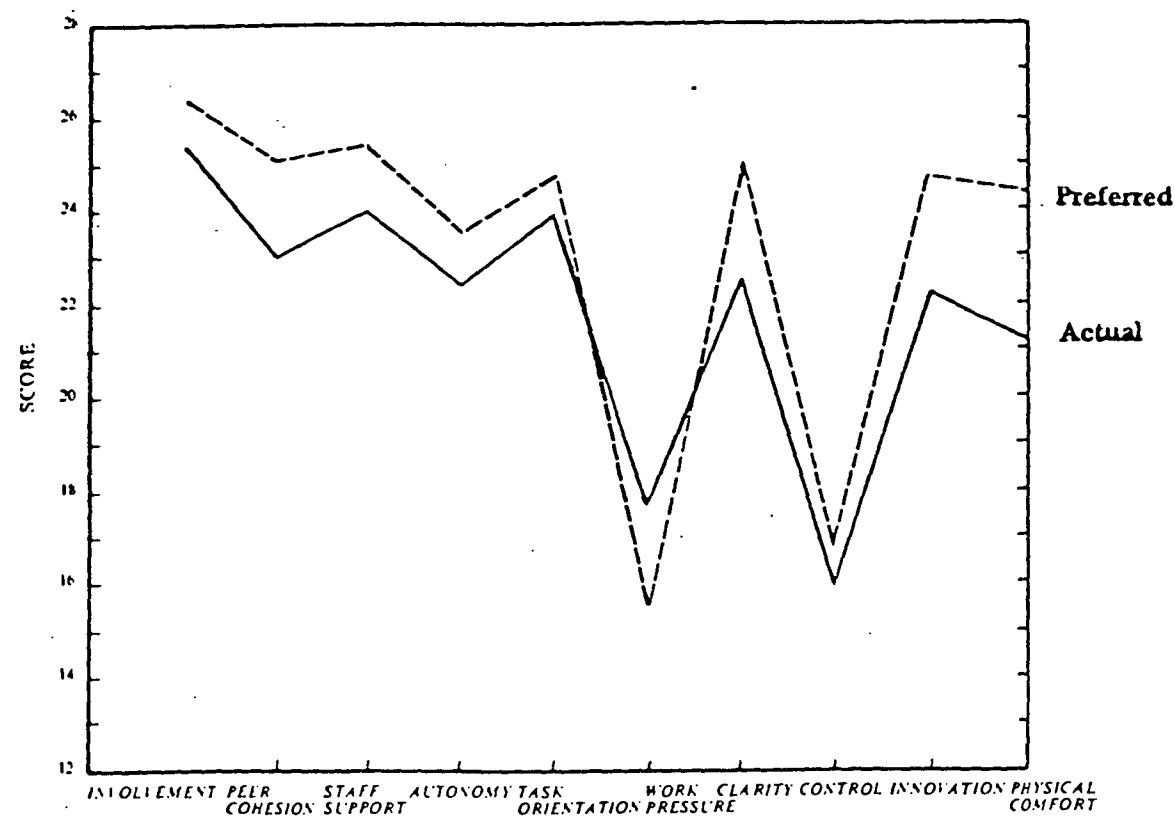
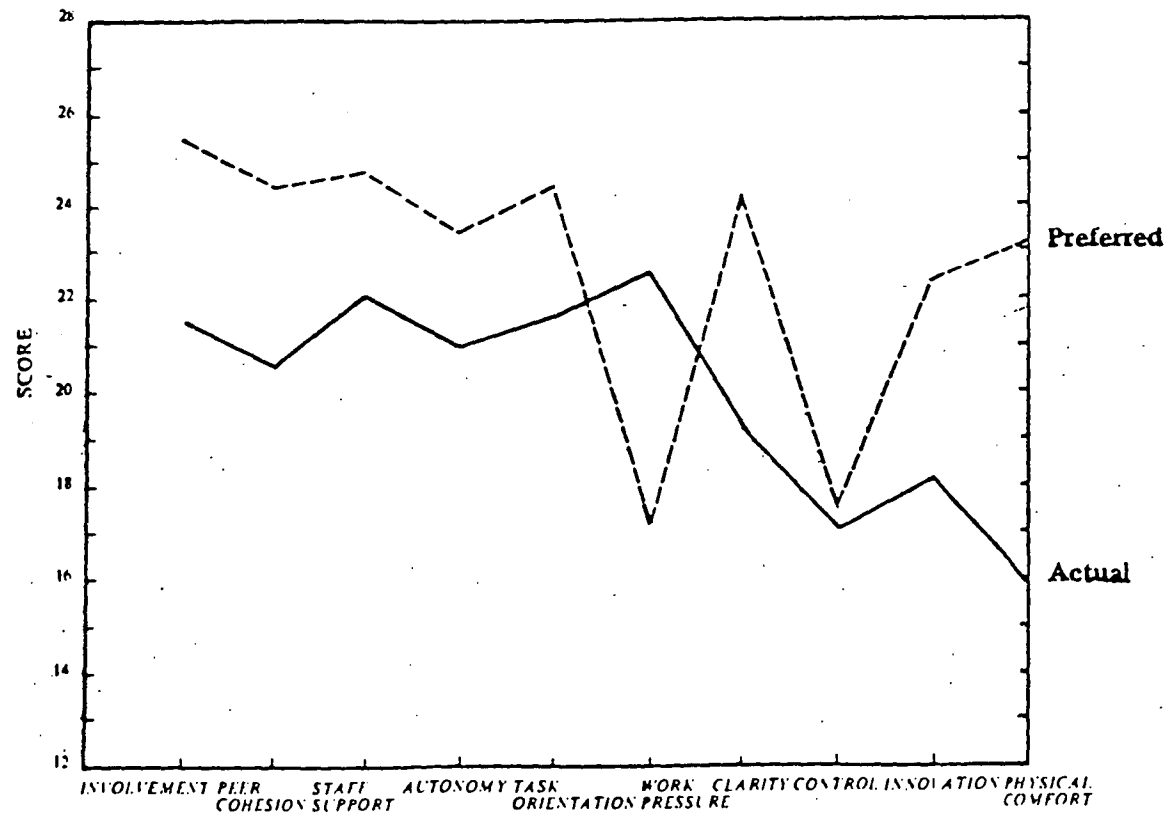


FIGURE 10. WES - ACTUAL AND PREFERRED SUB-SCALES MEANS FOR HIGH SCHOOLS - 1984



SCHOOL CLIMATE SCALE ITEMS

Primary schools seem generally to have a more favourable school climate than high schools, though it must be noted that there is considerable variation between schools in each school type. This variation suggests there are schools with poorer and better school climates in most school types. It may well be possible to extend this analysis of school climate to a particular section of the school, or by subject or grade in large high schools.

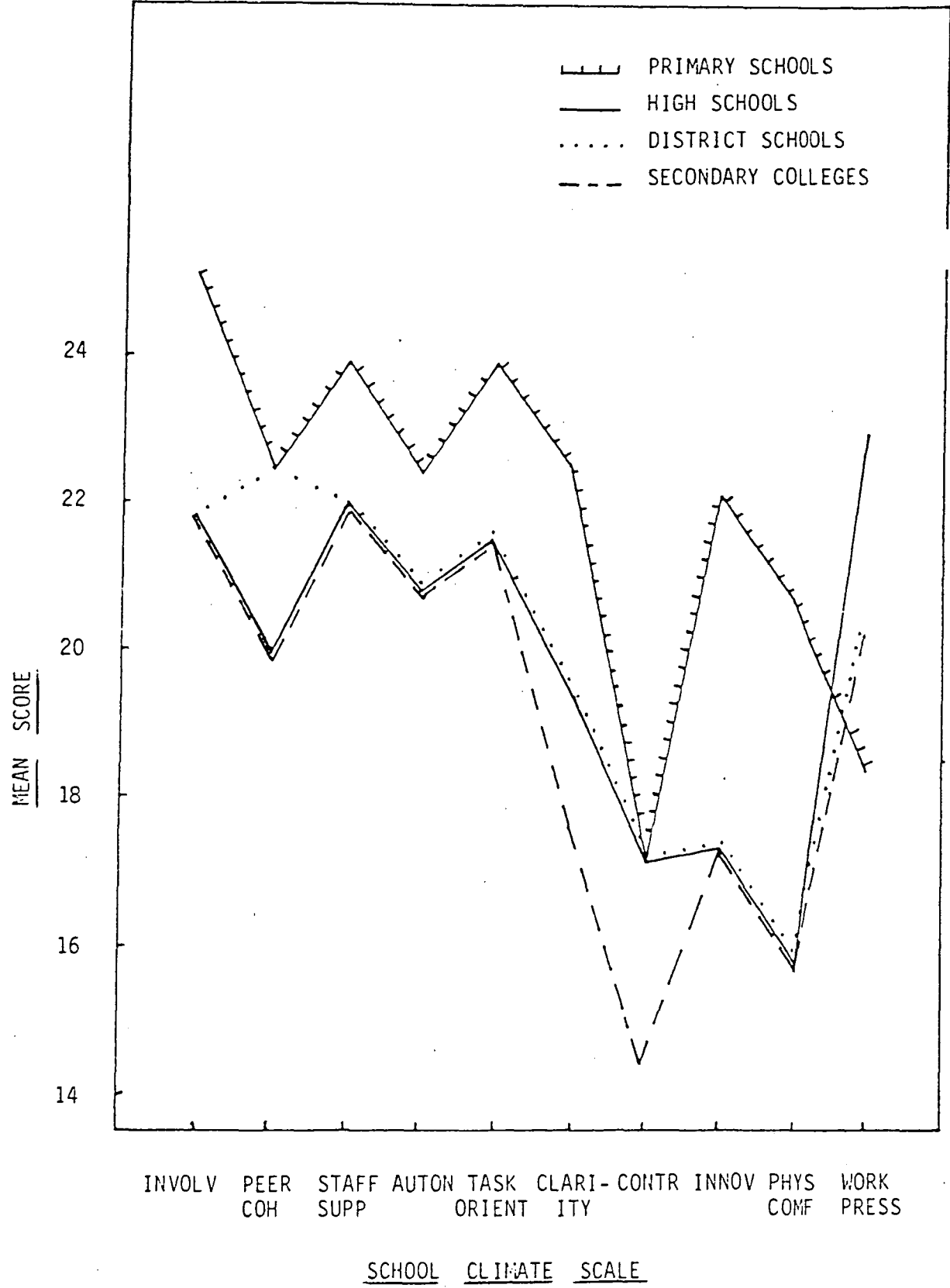
The difference between 'actual' and 'preferred' was largest in most school types in the system maintenance and system change dimensions of work pressure, clarity, innovation and physical comfort. The large differences in actual and preferred scores in these areas were indicated in Table 15.

An interesting application using Tukey's post hoc procedure was also reported in Docker et al. (1986). This procedure was used in each sub-scale in turn to establish the statistical significance of pairwise comparisons between each school type on each environment dimension. These findings are summarised in Figure 11, which is a simplified plot in which any nonsignificant differences between school types are represented by a zero difference by averaging the relevant scores.

The profiles depicted in Figure 11 reveal some clear general patterns of differences in the favourableness of the school environments in the four school types depicted. The most striking pattern is that the climate in primary schools emerged as more favourable than the environment of any of the other three types of

FIGURE 11.

WES DIFFERENCES BETWEEN FOUR TYPES OF SCHOOL



Docker, Fraser and Fisher (1986, 14)

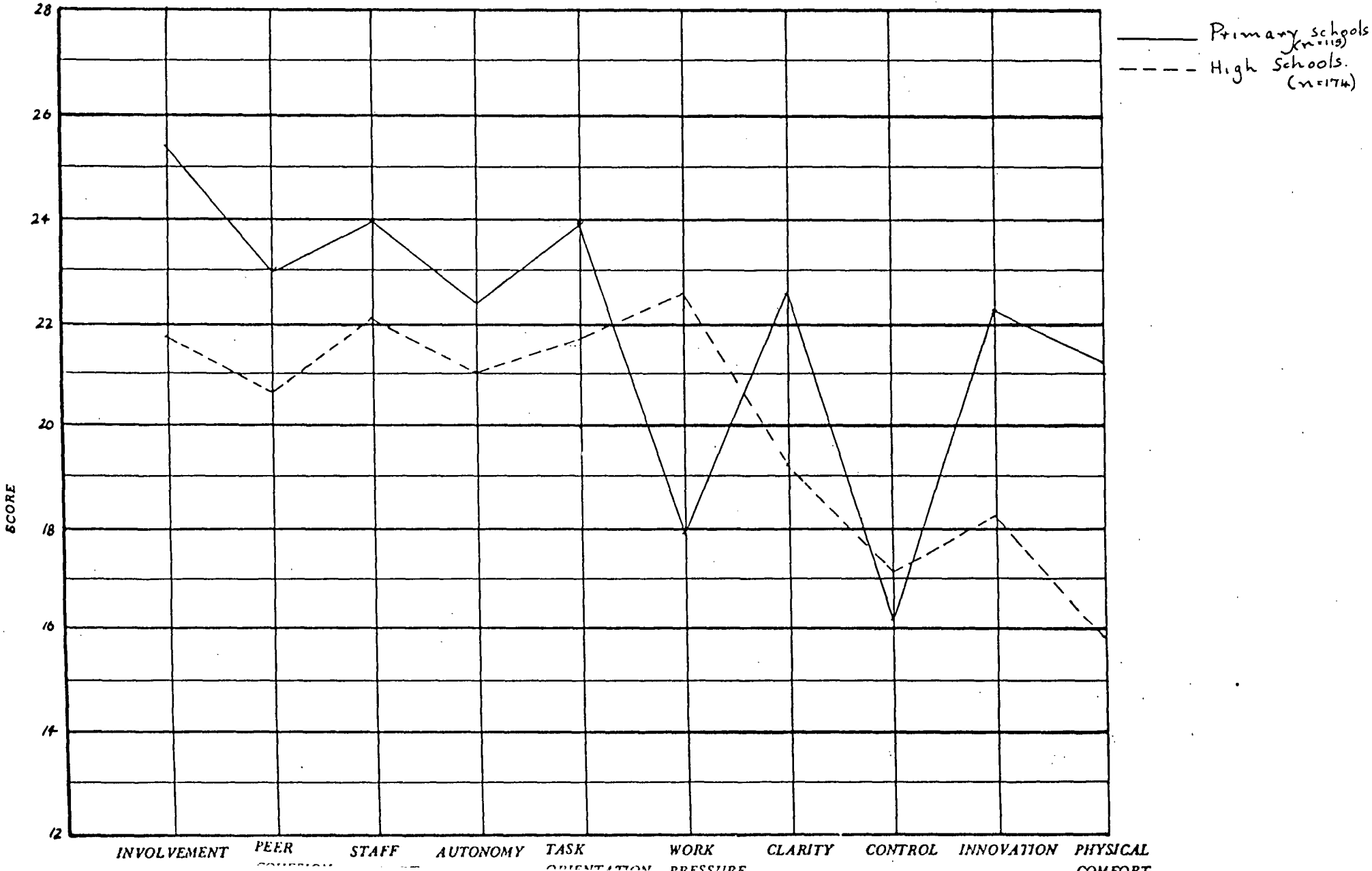
schools on most of the WES sub-scales. In fact, primary schools were perceived more favourably than all of the other three school types on seven dimensions: primary schools were viewed as having greater involvement, staff support, autonomy, task orientation, clarity, innovation, physical comfort and less work pressure. Also primary schools were perceived as having greater peer cohesion than high schools and secondary colleges (but not district schools) and greater control than secondary colleges (but not high schools or district schools). Moreover, the differences between primary schools and other types of schools appear greatest in what Moos refers to as system maintenance and system change dimensions. In particular, primary schools were most distinctive in terms of their greater innovation and physical comfort and their smaller work pressure relative to the other types of government schools.

Although marked differences emerged between primary schools and the other three school types, overall there was much similarity in the climates of high schools, district schools and secondary colleges. On the six sub-scales of involvement, staff support, autonomy, task orientation, innovation and physical comfort, no significant differences emerged between these three school types. On the other hand, district schools were characterised by greater peer cohesion than either high schools or secondary colleges; secondary colleges were perceived as having less clarity and less control than either high schools or district schools; and work pressure was greater in high schools than in either district schools or secondary colleges.

FIGURE 12. WES - ACTUAL SUB-SCALE MEANS FOR PRIMARY AND HIGH SCHOOLS
WORK ENVIRONMENT SCALE (WES)
TASMANIAN SCHOOLS 1984

Actual

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5.3 SUMMARY

This chapter has described the first large-scale use of the Work Environment Scale (WES) to measure teachers' perceptions of ten important psycho-social sub-scales of their school environment.

When data were analysed according to school type, there was little difference between teachers' perceptions of 'preferred' or ideal work environment. That is, teachers in all types of schools prefer a similar work environment. Teachers also had consistent perceptions of 'preferred' environment for schools within each school type. Thus the data demonstrated that there is agreement among teachers about preferred environments, regardless of school, school type, size or location. This consistency of teacher perception provides a benchmark for comparison between 'actual' and 'preferred' work environments.

However, considerable variation occurs between school types in the perceptions of 'actual' work environments. Teachers in some types of schools perceive that they have a better work environment than others. The most favourable working environment was reported in primary schools, for nine of the ten sub-scales examined in the survey. Analysis of the 'actual' responses to the WES items indicated considerable variation between schools in each type, indicating that some schools have a 'better' work environment than others. Following analysis of the data, no relationship was found to indicate that schools with a 'better' working environment were of a particular size, location (urban or rural), or were Government or independent schools.

It was argued that teachers work better in their preferred environment. Thus the smaller the gap between the 'actual' and 'preferred' means for any aspect of the work environment, the more favourable the school climate. It would appear that schools could use the WES survey as a diagnostic tool to gather data about 'actual' and 'preferred' means within their school and introduce strategies to close this gap between the means, and thereby improve the school climate.

CHAPTER 6

THE RPTIM MODEL OF STAFF-DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES

As outlined in Chapter 4, the RPTIM survey was used in the context of school case-studies when professional-development practices were evaluated in Tasmania. This chapter will focus on the results obtained in the RPTIM survey.

The main purpose of using the RPTIM survey for this study was to gather information about research questions 1, 4 and 5. These are :

- . what differences exist between actual and preferred approaches to staff development?
- . what differences exist among schools when classified according to type, size and location?
- . what differences exist between actual and preferred staff-development practices and climates in Tasmanian schools?

Details of the RPTIM survey, beliefs, questions, validation tests and data, were provided in Chapter 4.

6.1 RPTIM RESULTS - ACTUAL AND PREFERRED COMPARISONS

To gather information related to the research question of what differences exist among schools when classified by type, the Tasmanian results were examined according to school type (primary, district

high, high, secondary colleges, independent 7-12, independent K-6). Here some interesting facts emerged.

An examination of the 'what should be' RPTIM results indicated little difference between teachers' perceptions when analysed according to school type. That is, teachers in all types of schools had similar perceptions of what should exist in each of the 38 staff-development practices. This is illustrated graphically in Figure 13, where the means for 'what should be' are shown for each school type.

This relatively common perception of what teachers regard as the ideal is further exemplified in the ten basic beliefs (mentioned earlier) on which the RPTIM model is based. These are outlined according to school type in Figure 14. In Figure 14 the vertical axis is exaggerated to emphasise differences and the ten beliefs are shown on the horizontal axis in order. These results are extremely consistent regardless of school type. The only real area of discrepancy is in belief nine where independent schools are relatively low when compared to other school types.

In the Tasmanian survey, Belief 9 stated:

'The Education Department has the primary responsibility for providing the resources for in-service training'.

Teachers in independent schools in Tasmania are outside the responsibility of the State Education Department. Thus, while a great deal of in-service training for independent school personnel has been provided in recent years by the Schools Commission through the agency

FIGURE 13. RPTIM - MEAN RESPONSES BY SCHOOL TYPE - 'WHAT SHOULD BE', 1984

SCHOOL-BASED STAFF DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES INVENTORY MEAN RESPONSES: TASMANIAN SCHOOLS 1984

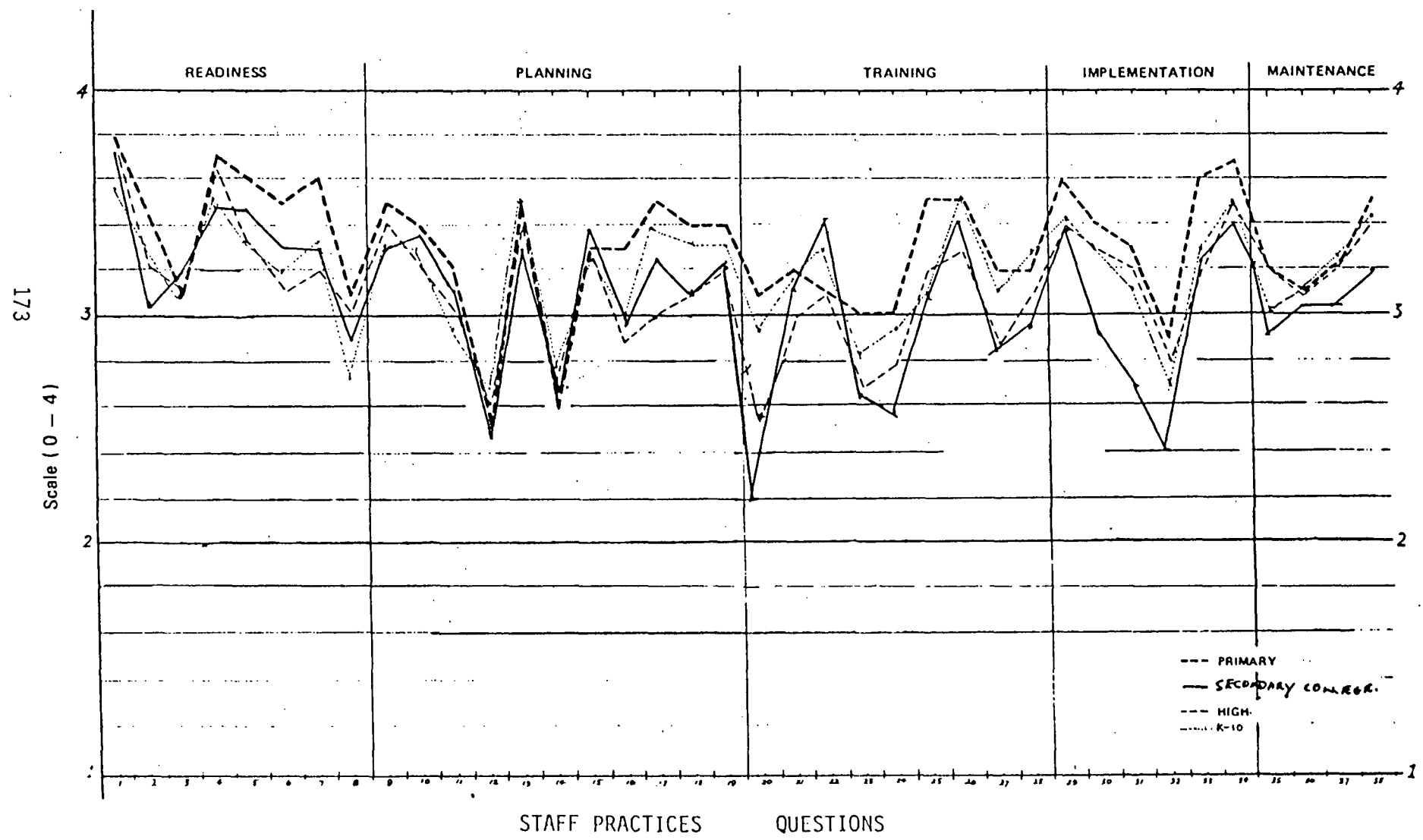
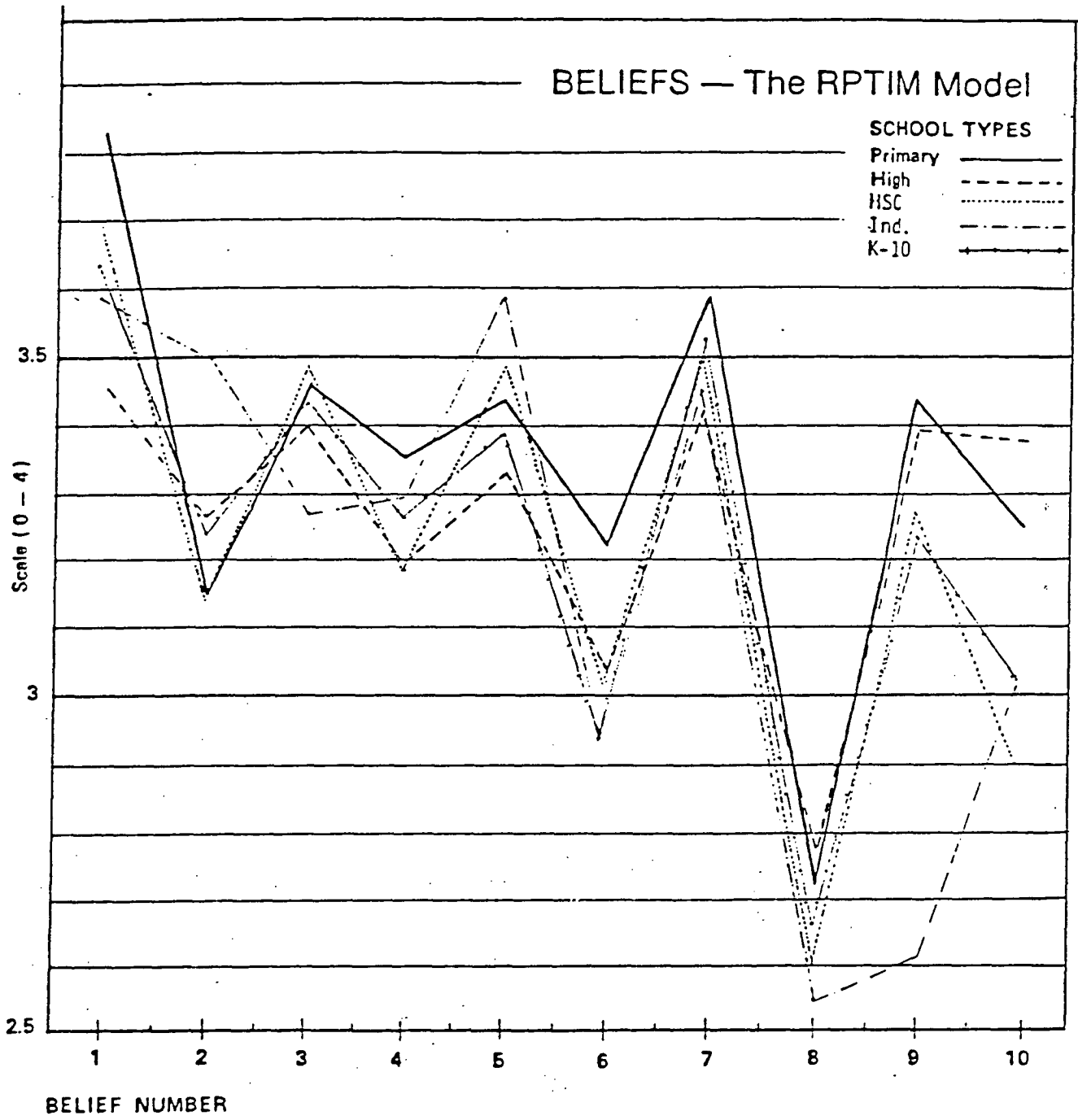


FIGURE 14. RPTIM - MEAN RESPONSES BY SCHOOL TYPE - BELIEFS - 1984

SCHOOL-BASED STAFF DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES INVENTORY
MEAN RESPONSES: TASMANIAN SCHOOLS 1984



of the Tasmanian Education Department, this low response from independent school teachers would be expected.

However, considerable variation occurred between school types in the 'what exists' form of the RPTIM survey. Thus, teachers in different types of schools perceive that some types of schools have better staff-development practices than others. The most favourable staff-development practices were reported in primary schools for 36 of the 38 practices. The exception was practice 25 where the mean ranged from independent schools' 3.11 (primary 3.09) to secondary colleges 2.29. (Practice 25 stated: School principals participate in staff development activities with their staff). Figure 15 illustrates the difference between school types for teachers' perceptions of 'what exists'.

An ANOVA was performed for each sub-scale with school type membership (this sample did not include the school type, independent K-6, because of the small sample) as its main effect. Table 17 shows that four of the five scales differed significantly ($p < 0.05$) between school types and that the η^2 statistic, which is the ratio of between two total sums of squares, is provided as an estimate of the amount of variance in school staff-development practices attributable to school type membership, ranged from 0.02 for training to 0.09 for readiness. These findings are outlined below.

By accepting Wood et al.'s definition of neglected practice, where there is a difference of 1.00 or more between the means for 'what should be', and 'what exists', neglected practices in primary schools

Table 17

ANOVA RESULTS FOR SCHOOL TYPE MEMBERSHIP DIFFERENCES IN TEACHER PERCEPTIONS ON 'WHAT IS' FORM OF RPTIM					
Scale	SS Between	SS Within	df	F	eta ²
Readiness	904.4	9244.6	4	9.0*	0.09
Planning	792.1	24661.0	4	2.9*	0.03
Training	156.9	6514.7	4	2.1	0.02
Implementation	165.8	5377.7	4	2.8*	0.03
Maintenance	130.5	2419.9	4	4.9*	0.05
(* p<00.5)					

included only items 11 and 31; in high schools, items 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 9, 11, 12, 14, 15, 26, 30, 31, 33, 35 and 36; in secondary colleges, items 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, 12, 14, 15, 18, 29, 30, 31, 33, 35, 36 and 37. Thus teachers in high schools and secondary colleges perceive many more neglected staff-development practices than primary teachers do.

It was evident that the gap between 'what exists' and 'what should be' is far greater in high schools and secondary colleges than in primary schools for most staff-development practices. (For primary and high schools, this gap is graphically portrayed in Figure 16 by the space between the solid and broken lines.)

Favourable staff-development practices were found in large and small primary schools, and in schools from country and urban centres. Thus, teachers' perceptions of a more favourable 'what exists' staff-

development practices on the RPTIM survey could not be statistically substantiated according to size or location of school.

6.2 ANALYSIS OF RESULTS FOR INDIVIDUAL SCHOOLS

To gather information related to the research question of what differences exist between teachers' perceptions of 'what is' and 'what should be' staff-development practices, data were analysed for individual schools. Teachers in schools within each school type had very similar perceptions of the 'what should be'. This is illustrated in Figure 17 where the results are shown for the three high schools that completed the RPTIM survey. (The same high schools were used as examples in the WES study in Figures 6 and 8). This similarity of perceptions of 'what should be' occurred for schools in all school types. Thus teachers in all schools and school types preferred a similar environment for 'what should be'. This again indicates strong agreement among teachers and provides an approximate benchmark for comparison between 'what exists' and 'what should be'. This was similar to the findings in the WES survey discussed in Sections 5.1 and 5.2 of this study.

When the results of 'what exists' are examined for schools in each school type, considerable variation occurs. Figure 18 indicates the differences in the three high schools mentioned above. It can be noted that the teachers in Rose Bay high school perceive that over half of the 38 staff-development practices at their school are worse than the same practices in Penguin and Cosgrove high schools. The differences

expressed graphically in Figure 18 are generally larger in the readiness, training, implementation and maintenance RPTIM model stages.

Considering teachers generally agree on 'what should be', it is argued that schools could develop strategies for improvement of specific staff-development practices or RPTIM model stages by attempting to close the gap between 'what exists' and 'what should be'.

6.3 A COMPARISON OF THE UNITED STATES AND TASMANIAN RESULTS

The results obtained in Tasmania are compared with those obtained in the United States by Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson. For the purpose of this comparison, brief details of the samples used for the data collection in the United States and in Tasmania are provided below.

6.3.1 The United States sample

In the United States, in order to determine the validity of each of the 38 practices, Wood, McQuarrie and Thompson conducted a national survey of American professors and practitioners.

'The Survey of Effective Staff Development Practices' was conducted across the memberships of the Council of Professors of Instructional Supervision (50 professors involved in research, teaching and service in the area of professional development) and the National Staff Development Council (378 members actively involved in

FIGURE 15. RPTIM - MEAN RESPONSES BY SCHOOL TYPES - 'WHAT EXISTS' - 1984

SCHOOL-BASED STAFF DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES INVENTORY

MEAN RESPONSES: TASMANIAN SCHOOLS 1984

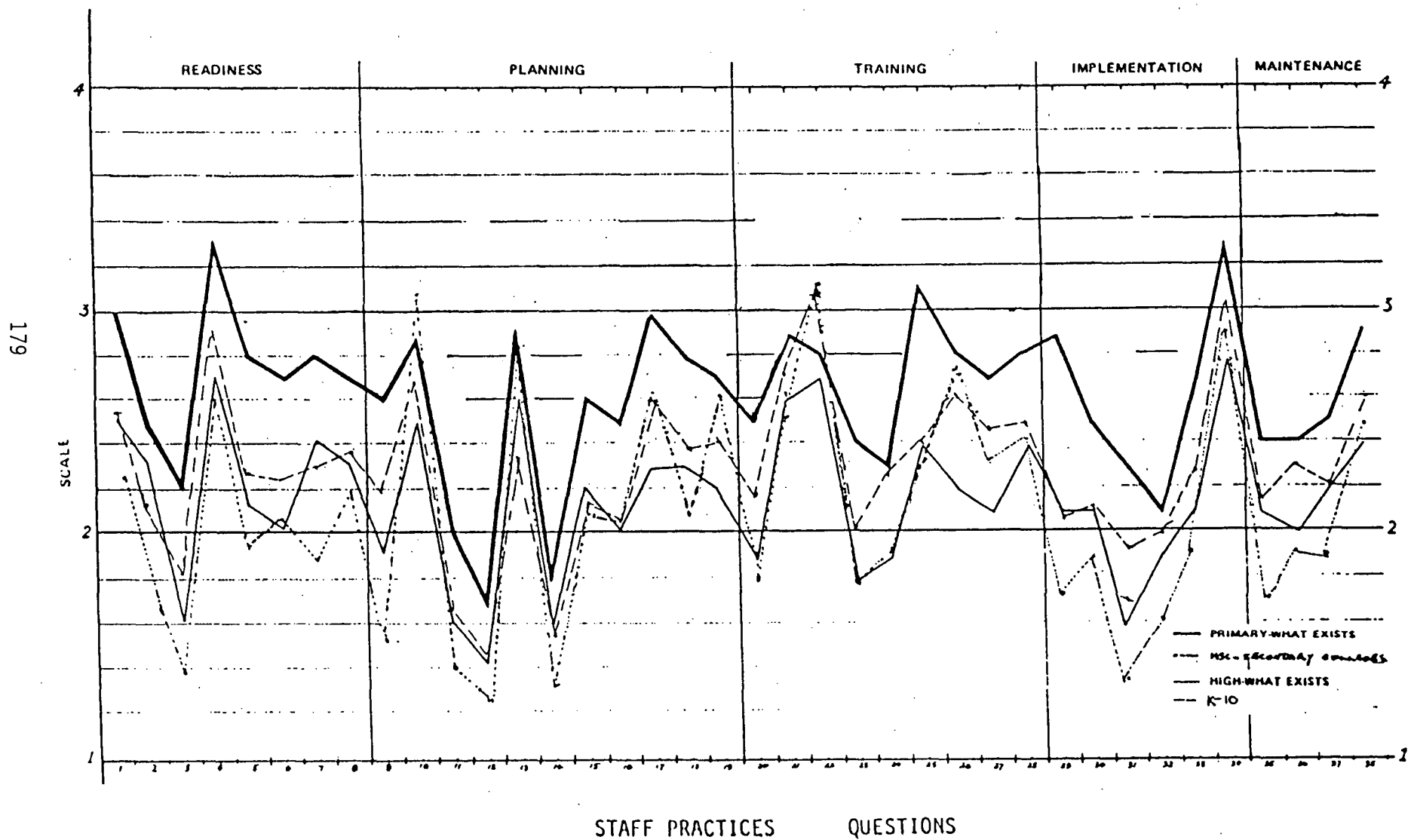


FIGURE 16. RPTIM - MEAN RESPONSES FOR PRIMARY AND HIGH SCHOOLS - 'WHAT EXISTS' AND 'WHAT SHOULD BE' - 1984

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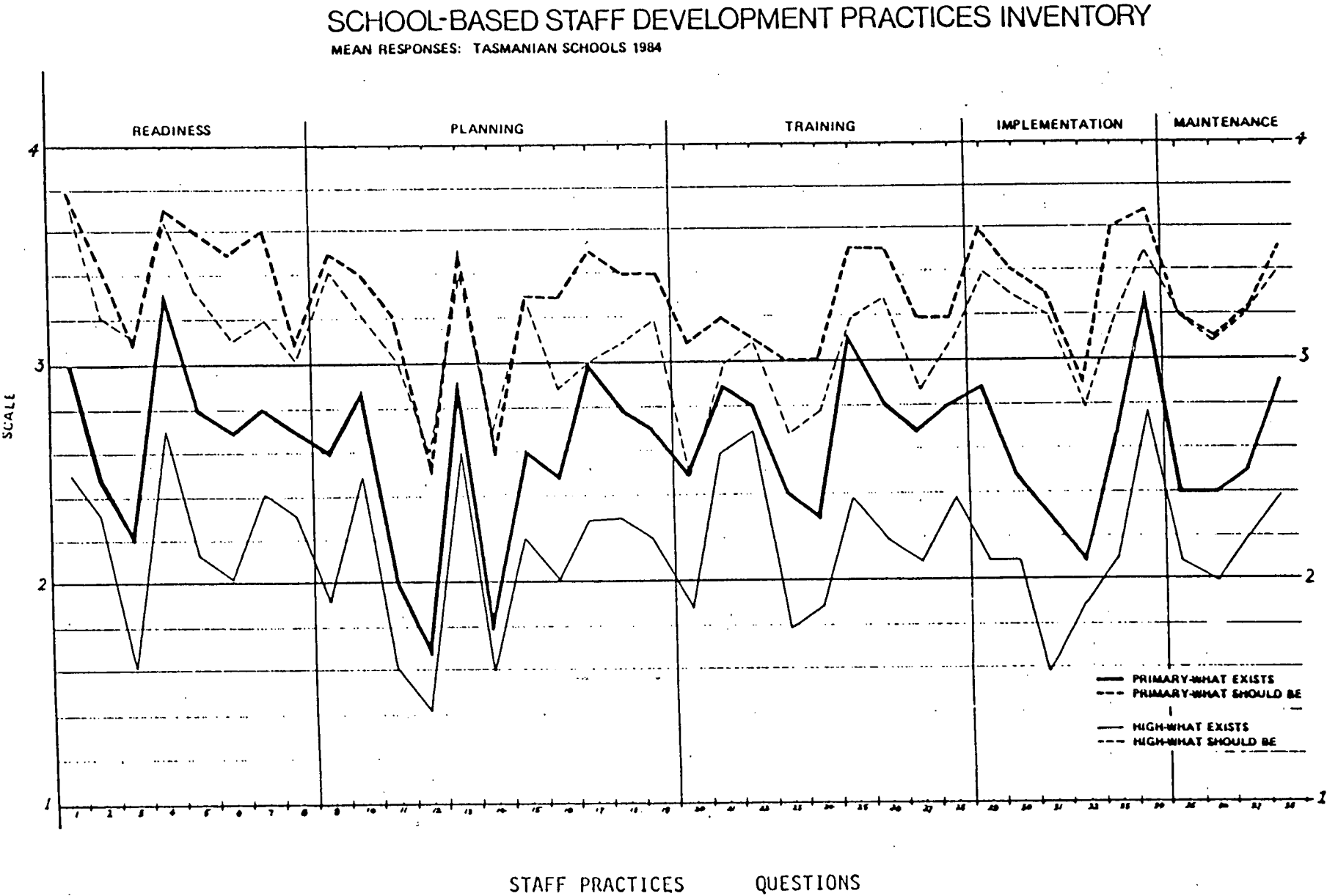


FIGURE 17. RPTIM - MEAN RESPONSES FOR THREE HIGH SCHOOLS - 'WHAT SHOULD BE' - 1984

SCHOOL-BASED STAFF DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES INVENTORY

MEAN RESPONSES: TASMANIAN SCHOOLS 1984

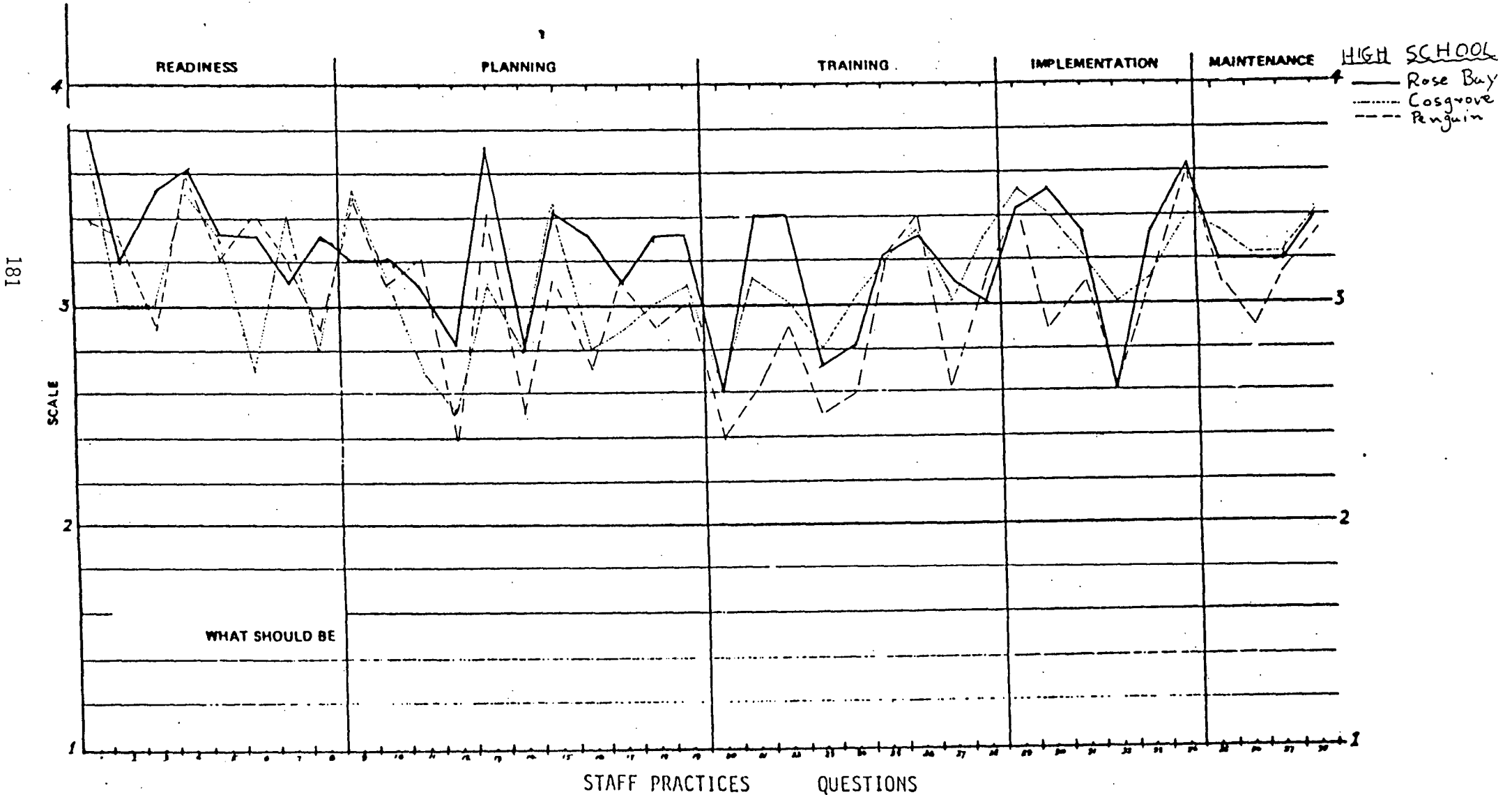
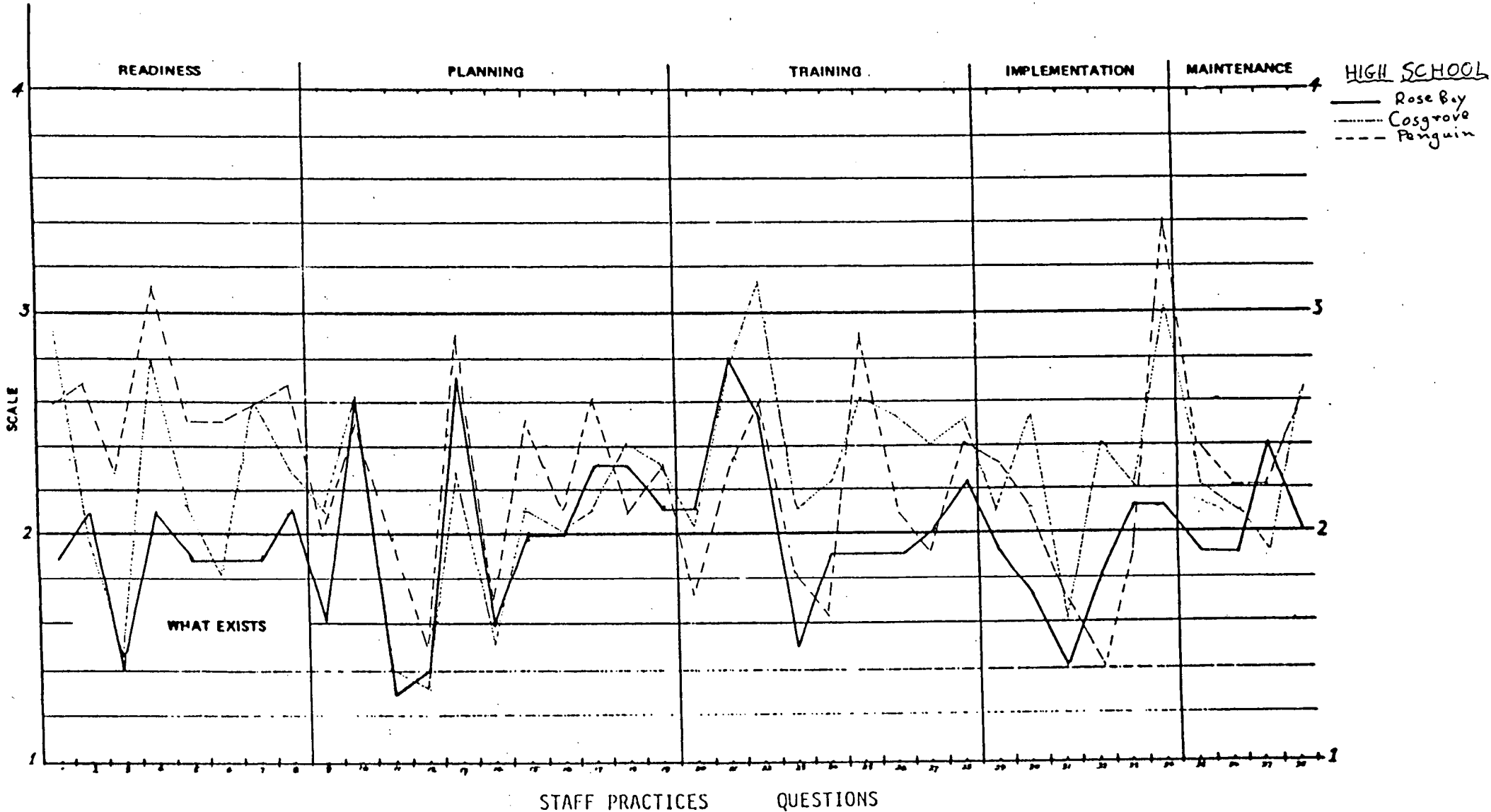


FIGURE 18. RPTIM - MEAN RESPONSES FOR THREE HIGH SCHOOLS - 'WHAT EXISTS' - 1984

SCHOOL-BASED STAFF DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES INVENTORY

MEAN RESPONSES: TASMANIAN SCHOOLS 1984

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planning staff development programs for schools). Eighty-six per cent of the professors and 80 per cent of the practitioners responded.

6.3.2 The Tasmanian sample

The Tasmanian survey sample (380 teachers), detailed in Table 12 differed from the original American sample in that the Tasmanians involved were all either practising teachers or directly involved in staff development through their role in school administration. Thus, while American perceptions were based on a perspective mostly from outside schools, the Tasmanian survey was conducted internally with the target group of teachers and administrators examining staff development processes and activities in their own schools. Table 12 provides a breakdown by school type of the number of teachers involved.

A comparison of the results of the American and Tasmanian samples follows in Table 18.

Analysis of the neglected items in the Tasmanian survey indicated the major areas of neglect were in the 'readiness' stage (six of the eight items were thought to be neglected), the 'planning' stage (five of the 11 items) and the 'implementation' stage (four of the six items). No items in the 'training' stage fell into the neglected area, and only one of four items was considered neglected in the 'maintenance' stage.

TABLE 18

6.3.3 COMPARISON OF RESULTS OF UNITED STATES AND TASMANIAN SAMPLESUnited States results

Strong positive support was shown for assumptions on which the RPTIM model was based. Well over 90 per cent of both the practitioners and professors agreed or strongly agreed with all assumptions except number 8 ('The school is the most appropriate unit or target of change in education'). While three-quarters of the professors agreed or strongly agreed with this assumption, only a little more than half of the practitioners agreed with it.

Thirty-two of the 38 practices in the model were strongly supported (i.e. by 90 per cent or more of the respondents) as fitting either into the 'often' or 'almost always' categories when in-service programs were being designed. The remaining six practices received over 70 per cent support as falling into these two categories.

In the 'what exists' survey, 20 of the 38 practices were implemented in schools (i.e. 50 per cent in the 'often' or 'almost always' categories).

Both professors and practitioners agreed that nine items (items 1, 4, 7, 9, 19, 29, 34 and 38) were 'essential' in the development of in-service programs (over 70 per cent placed these items in the 'almost always' category). Practitioners reported an additional seven essential items (3, 5, 13, 15, 25, 26 and 30).

(Note: The difference in results for this item may well reflect that the term practitioner in Tasmania referred to classroom teachers while in the American survey it referred to experts in professional development services outside schools).

Professors and practitioners agreed on 19 neglected practices. A practice was considered 'neglected' if it had a difference of 1.00 between the means for 'what should be' and 'what exists', as expressed on a scale of 4. The most neglected items included 1, 2, 3, 5, 9, 11, 29, 30, 33, 36, 37 and 38.

Tasmanian results

Over 80 per cent of those surveyed the 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' with all except one of the assumptions on which the model is based. The exception was the same (number 8) as that of the American survey. Only 56 per cent of Tasmanians endorsed this assumption.

There was strong support for the majority of practices in the survey, though not as strong as reported in the United States. Only 11 practices were supported by 90 per cent or more respondents, and 29 out of 38 practices were seen by 80 per cent or more teachers as needing to be 'often' or 'almost always' used when in-service programs were being designed.

Only 11 of the practices were implemented in schools. These were items 1, 4, 10, 13, 17, 21, 22, 25, 26, 34 and 38.

Only one item was viewed as 'essential' when staff development programs were being designed (i.e. over 70 per cent of respondents placed it in the 'almost always' category when describing what 'should be'). That 'essential' item was number 1: 'A positive school climate is developed before other staff development efforts are attempted.'

The Tasmanian results indicated 16 neglected practices. Nine of these (items 1, 2, 3, 5, 9, 11, 29, 30 and 33) coincided with those seen to be neglected in America. The additional practices identified as neglected were items 6, 7, 12, 14, 15, 31, 35.

[Edited from Docker et al. 1985(g)]

The areas of apparent 'neglect' are ones which it may pay Tasmanian educationists to consider more closely. Although only 25 schools were involved in the sample, the schools included a wide range -- urban and rural schools, primary and high schools, secondary colleges, independent schools, district high schools. The sample may, therefore, be considered fairly representative of the system as a whole. This indicates that there is certainly room for improvement in the design of staff-development activities. Much more attention needs to be paid to the laying of firm foundations for effective staff-development activities.

6.4 SUMMARY

This chapter describes the first systematic use of the RPTIM model to measure staff-development practices in Australia.

When data were analysed according to school type, there was little difference between teachers' perceptions of 'what should be' or preferred staff-development practices. That is, teachers in all types of schools prefer similar staff-development practices. Teachers also had consistent perceptions of 'what should be' for schools within each school type. It is apparent that there is agreement among teachers about preferred environments, regardless of school type, size or location. This consistency of teachers' perception provides a benchmark for comparison between 'what is' and 'what should be' for staff-development practices.

Similar results were obtained about the beliefs on which the RPTIM model was based. Again there were consistent results for nine of the ten beliefs.

However, considerable variation occurs between school types in teachers' perceptions of 'what is', or actual staff-development practices. Teachers in some types of school perceive that they have better staff-development practices than others. The most favourable results were reported in primary schools for 36 of the 38 practices examined in the RPTIM survey. Analysis of the 'what is' responses to the RPTIM items indicated considerable variation between schools in each school type, indicating some schools have 'better' staff-development practices than others. Following analysis of the data, no relationship was found between schools with 'better' staff-development practices and the schools' size, location (urban or rural), or whether they were Government or independent schools.

Using the Wood et al. definition of a 'neglected' practice, as one in which there was a difference of 1.00 or more between the means for 'what should be' and 'what exists', it was argued that schools could use the RPTIM survey as a diagnostic tool to gather information on these practices. Attempts could then be made to close the gap in these areas and thereby improve staff-development practices in the school.

As the survey was used extensively in the United States, the results obtained were compared with the Tasmanian results. Although the method of selecting of sample respondents was different, the results obtained were similar in most areas.

CHAPTER 7

THE DEGREE OF ASSOCIATION BETWEEN THE WES AND RPTIM STUDIES

This chapter will demonstrate that there is a degree of association between school climate and professional-development practices; the author will argue this on the basis of data gained in the two surveys reported in the previous chapters. Additional evidence from the school case studies will also be introduced to explore the nature of the relationship between climate and professional development.

Both surveys sought responses using two sets of questions. These were questions about the 'actual' state of things (WES) or 'what exists' (RPTIM), and questions about the 'preferred' state of things (WES) or 'what should be' (RPTIM). As the wordings are synonymous and the meaning the same, the results of the two forms of these surveys are compared in this chapter.

The main purpose of this chapter is to examine the data in relation to research questions 3, 5 and 6. These are:

- . What is the relationship between approaches to staff development and the perceived climate in the school?
- . What differences exist between actual and preferred staff-development practices and climates in Tasmanian schools?

- . Which policies and procedures distinguish schools according to the quality of school climate and approaches to staff development?

7.1 THE RESULTS ACCORDING TO SCHOOL TYPE

Initially, the responses to the WES and RPTIM surveys were broken down according to school types, to establish whether school climate and/or staff-development practices were better in some types of schools than others. Results of individual schools were then analysed according to the means of each school type. Data analysis was reported in Chapters 5 and 6.

Table 19 details the school types studied and the number of teachers in each school type who responded to the surveys.

The data obtained from the two surveys have been analysed in the previous chapters, but to summarise, there was little difference between teachers' perceptions of the 'preferred' or ideal work environment according to school type, and little difference between perceptions in individual schools within each school type. That is, teachers in schools of all types preferred a similar environment. Similar results were found for teachers' perceptions of the 'what should be' survey of staff-development practices.

In contrast, teachers in different types of schools perceived that some types of school have a better working environment than others.

TABLE 19

DETAILS OF SURVEY SAMPLES (WES and RPTIM)				
<u>SCHOOL TYPE</u>	<u>SAMPLE SIZE</u>			
	<u>WES SURVEY</u> Actual	<u>Preferred</u>	<u>RPTIM SURVEY</u> What exists	<u>What should be</u>
. Primary school, grades K-6	108	107	101	101
. High school, grades 7-10	147	121	57	57
. District high school, grades K-10	108	99	52	52
. Secondary colleges, grades 11-12	138	116	58	58
. Independent schools, grades 7-12	76	78	93	93
. Independent primary schools, grades K-6	22	22	19	19
Totals	599	543	380	380

The most favourable work environment by school type was reported in primary schools for nine of the ten sub-scales examined in the WES survey. These nine sub-scales were all significant when tested statistically by ANOVA for differences between school types. Again, similar results were obtained from the RPTIM survey where teachers in primary schools responded more favourably (higher mean scores) to 37 of the 38 staff-development practices that were measured. Teachers' perceptions of 'actual' work environment and 'what is' staff-development practices varied greatly between schools.

The similarity between the WES 'preferred' results is outlined in Figure 19. In this figure, the broken lines show the range of means for 'preferred' responses by school type (five as stated below). When compared with the solid lines showing the range of means for 'actual' responses by school types, the similarity between teachers' perceptions of 'preferred' is clearly shown.

In Figure 20, the range of means for each school type on the RPTIM survey is shown for 'what exists' (solid lines) and 'what should be' (broken lines) for each staff practice. In 37 of the 38 practices the range of means of school types for 'what exists' was larger than those for 'what should be'. The limited range or closeness of the 'what should be' means indicates the similarity between teachers' perceptions. The larger variation of 'what exists' is also shown.

7.2 A COMPARISON OF RPTIM AND WES RESULTS FOR INDIVIDUAL SCHOOLS

As mentioned earlier, 'preferred' WES responses are generally similar in all school types. 'Actual' WES results for high schools, secondary colleges and independent schools are similar in most of the measured WES areas. 'Actual' WES results for independent primary schools followed the Government primary school pattern although they were far lower in innovation and physical comfort.

Figures 21 and 22 show the range of means of the nine primary schools (Figure 21) and the seven high schools (Figure 22) in the sample, for each of the ten sub-scales in the WES scale. The highest

FIGURE 19. WES - RANGE OF 'PREFERRED' and 'ACTUAL' MEANS BY SCHOOL TYPE - 1984

WORK ENVIRONMENT SCALE (WES)
TASMANIAN SCHOOLS 1984

Preferred - Range by school type (broken line)
Actual - Range by school type (solid line)

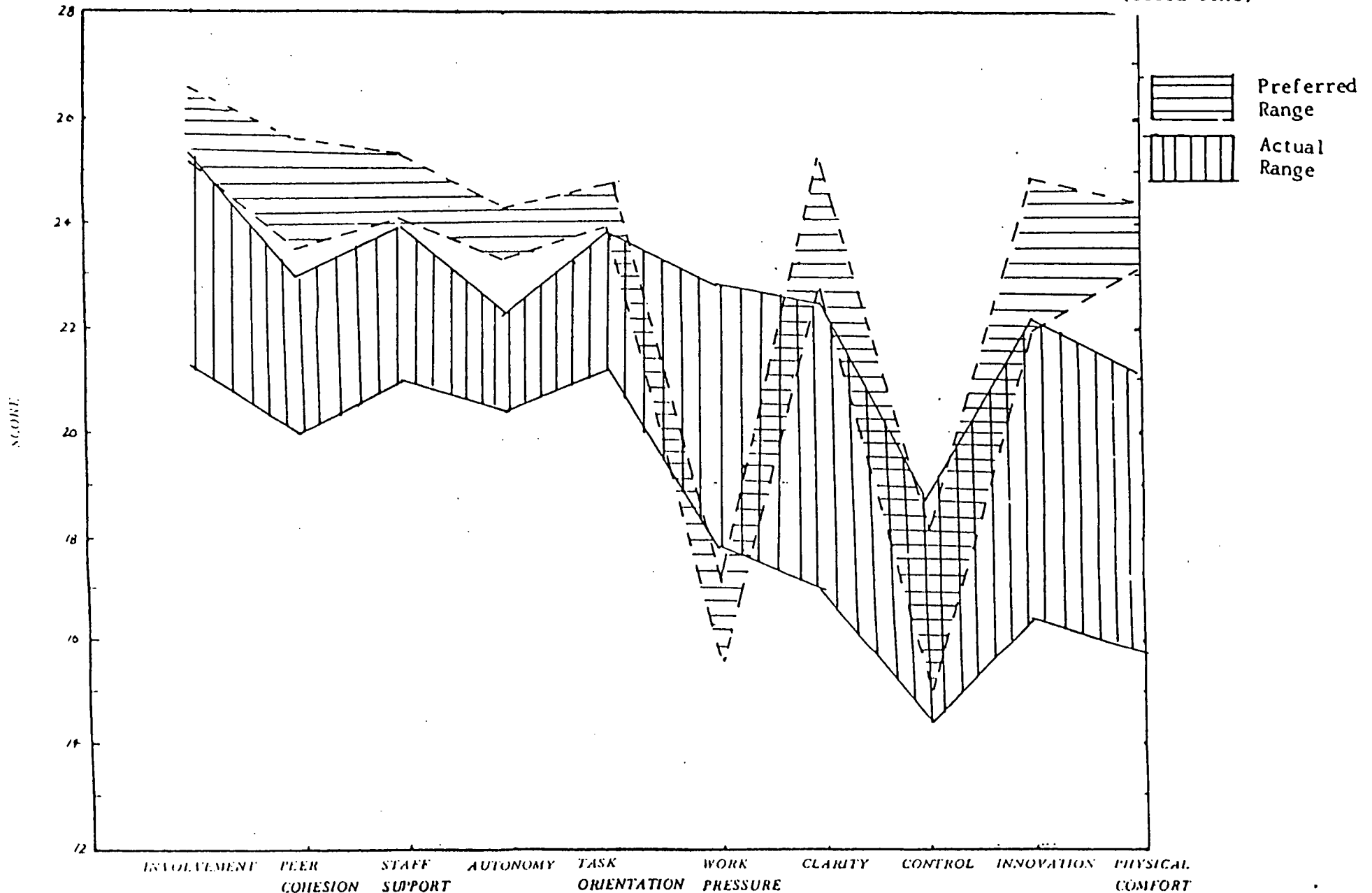
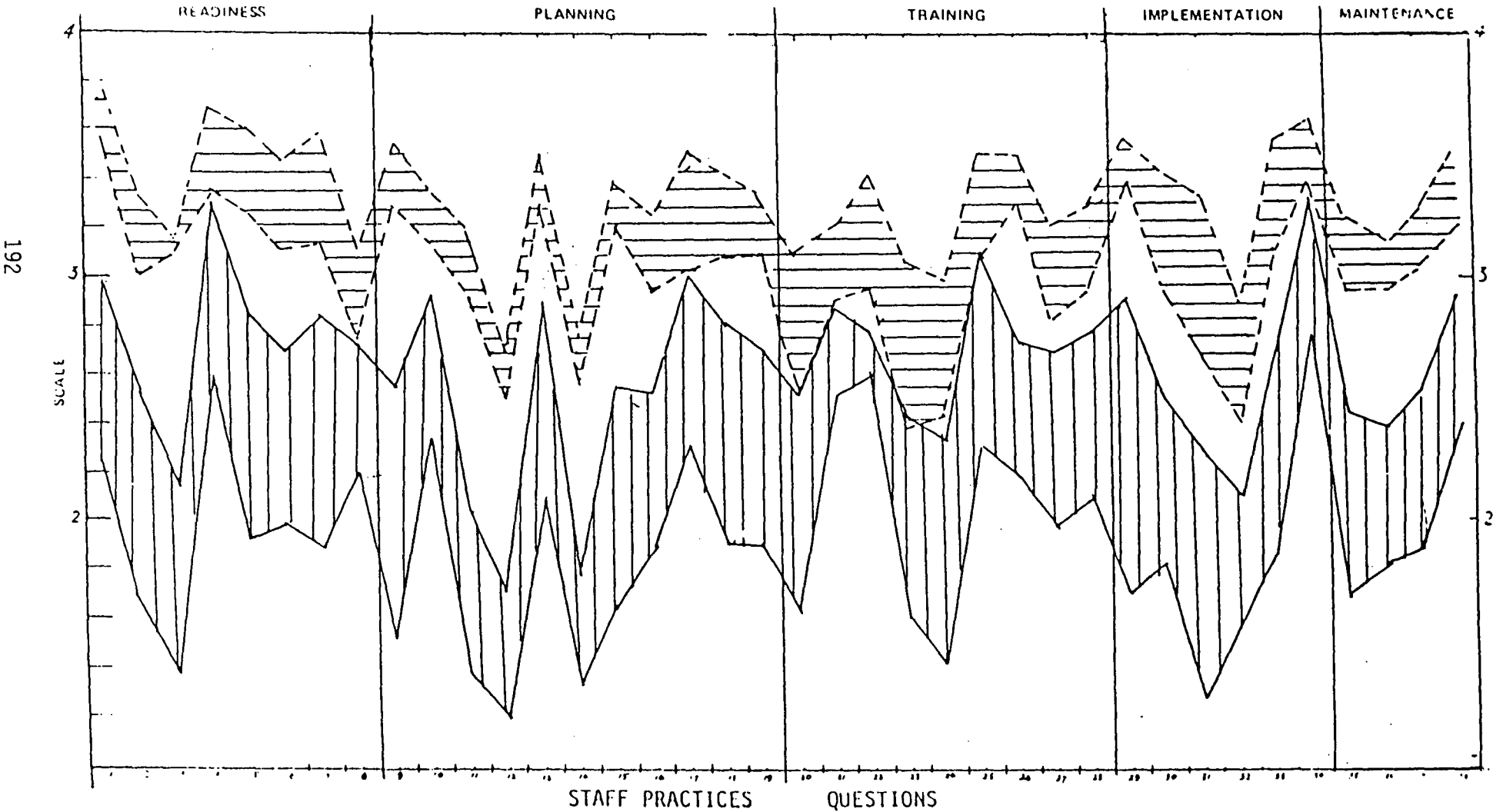


FIGURE 20. RPTIM - RANGE OF MEANS BY SCHOOL TYPE FOR 'WHAT EXISTS' and 'WHAT SHOULD BE' - 1984

SCHOOL-BASED STAFF DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES INVENTORY

MEAN RESPONSES: TASMANIAN SCHOOLS 1984

SCHOOL TYPE - What Exists - Range of means (solid line)
- What Should Be - Range of means (broken line)



scores for each sub-scale item for 'preferred' (broken lines) and 'actual' (solid lines) are joined together. Similarly, the lowest scores for each sub-scale item on the WES scale are joined. The gap between the broken lines indicates the range of 'preferred' scores and the gap between the solid lines indicates the range of 'actual' scores (edited from Docker et al. 1985(f)).

In both graphs, the range of scores is generally much smaller in the 'preferred' WES responses, indicating the near uniformity of teachers' perceptions of ideal circumstances. For primary schools the range of results is much smaller for 'preferred' (WES) in eight of the 10 sub-scale items.

Only in task-orientation and control are the 'actual' and 'preferred' ranges similar, and it is interesting to note that some primary schools are perceived to be working in the preferred range.

For high schools, the range of results for 'preferred' (WES) is smaller in all ten sub-scale items. Fewer high schools are consistently working in their preferred range. Again, only in the sub-scale of control is there some match between 'actual' and 'preferred'. The significance of this sub-scale was discussed in Chapter 5.

Another way of analysing scores of individual schools and noting the similarity of 'preferred' (WES) and 'what should be' (RPTIM) responses is to graph the results from individual schools in each school type. This has been done for high schools in Figure 6 (WES)

FIGURE 21. WES - RANGE OF SCHOOL MEANS ON ACTUAL AND PREFERRED FORMS - NINE PRIMARY SCHOOLS

WORK ENVIRONMENT SCALE (WES) ——— Actual Preferred — — — — —
TASMANIAN SCHOOLS 1984

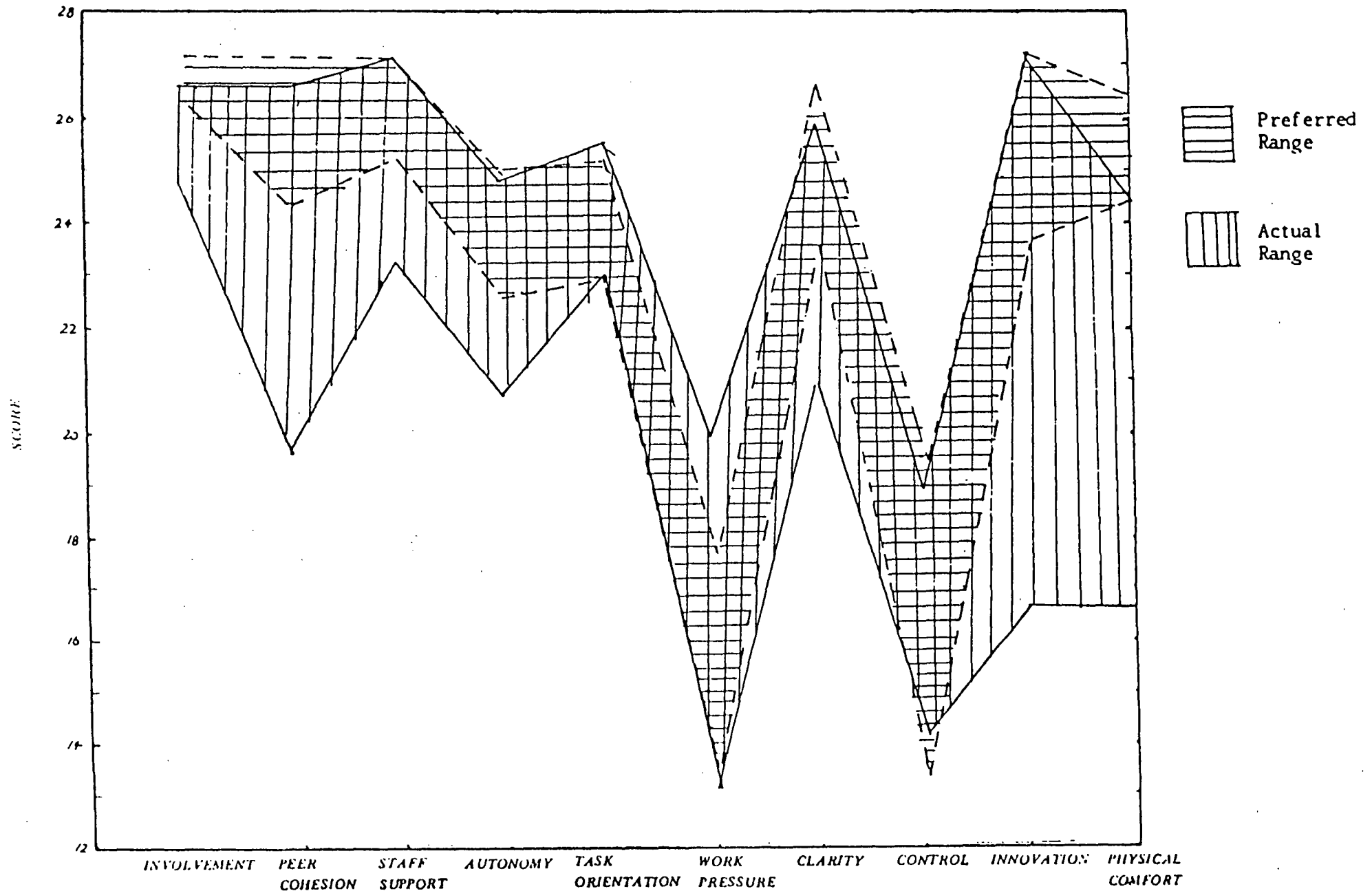
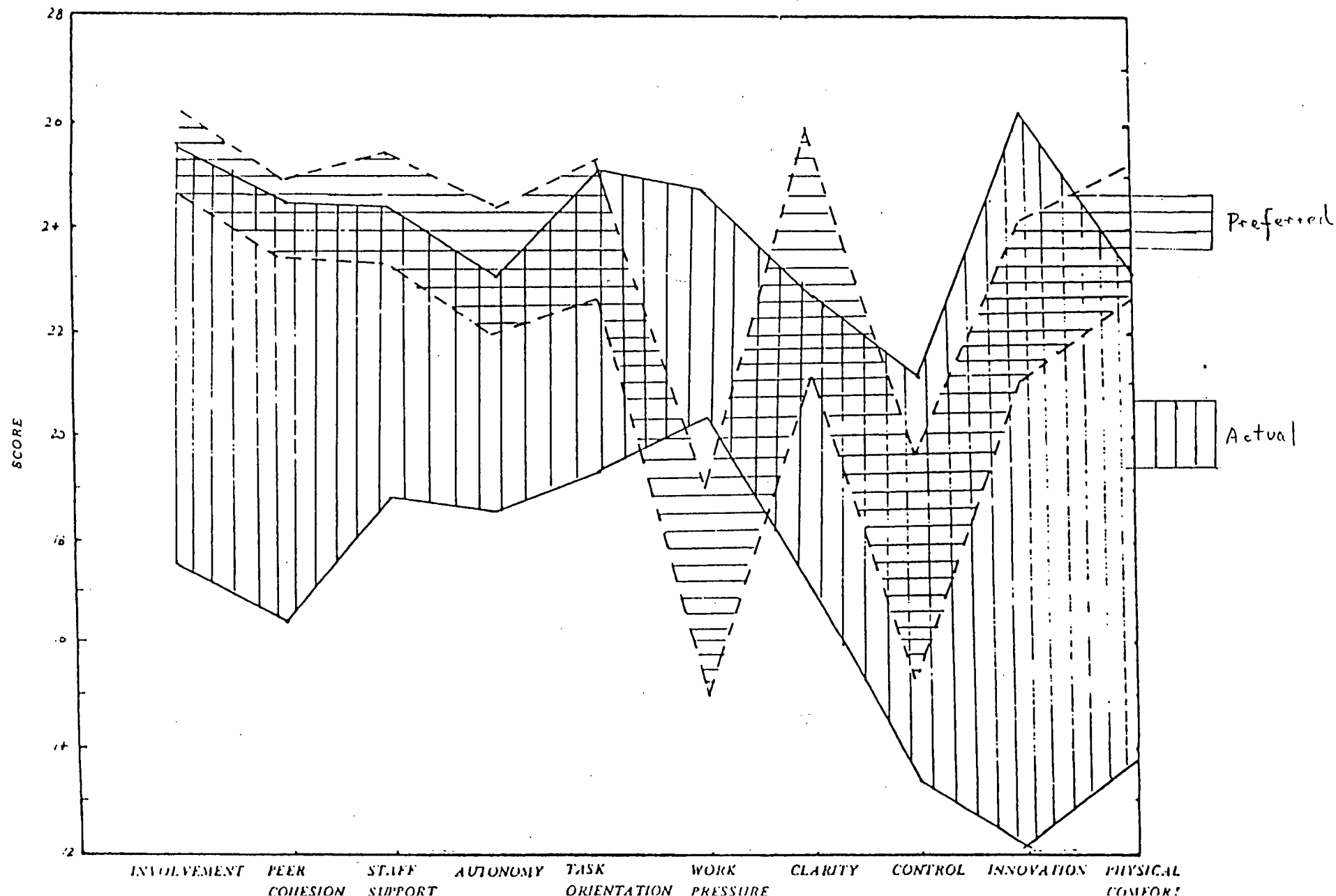


FIGURE 22. . WES - RANGE OF SCHOOL MEANS ON ACTUAL AND PREFERRED FORMS - SEVEN HIGH SCHOOLS

WORK ENVIRONMENT SCALE (WES) ——— Actual Preferred - - - - -
TASMANIAN SCHOOLS 1984



and Figure 17 (RPTIM). If these are compared with the 'actual' graph in Figure 8 (WES) and the 'what is' graph in Figure 18 (RPTIM) the range of differences between WES 'actual' and 'preferred', and RPTIM 'what is' and 'what should be' is similar for each school type and each school. Where the gap is small for a school between the two lines for WES it is small for the RPTIM lines. If the gap is large on one it is large on the other. This is consistent for all schools in each school type.

The results of these WES and RPTIM surveys have shown that some schools have better school work environments (climates) and staff-development practices than others. The question addressed now is whether schools with good work environments (climates) also have good staff-development practices.

7.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORK ENVIRONMENT AND STAFF-DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES

7.3.1 Identification of 'good' school climate

The 'actual' WES results for individual schools on each of the 10 sub-scales were analysed to see if they were on or above the average mean for that school type (see Table 16 for primary and high school 'actual' means). Results that are above the average mean are considered to be above the mean and towards the 'preferred' range. Work pressure for primary and high schools is depicted in the graphs as being below the mean; however, it is towards the preferred mean

(see Figures 9 and 10). Individual schools that scored six or more 'actual' WES results on or above the average 'actual' mean for their school type on the ten WES sub-scales are defined, in accordance with the evidence in this thesis, as having a 'good' school climate. These schools are above the mean in their school type for more than half the sub-scales and thus operating closer to the 'preferred' range. By contrast, a number of schools were below the mean for that school type on most of the WES sub-scales.

7.3.2 Relationship between WES and RPTIM results

Schools with a good school climate, as defined above, also had a high proportion of the RPTIM 'what exists' responses above the 'actual' mean for that school type. In addition, the actual WES results of individual schools were analysed to see how often these results occurred within the 'preferred' range of that school type. Schools that scored five or more actual WES results for the 10 sub-scales in the 'preferred' WES range were always in the top scores of the RPTIM 'what exists' range when the RPTIM results were also analysed according to means in that school type.

Schools with good school climates always recorded a higher proportion of RPTIM 'what exists' results above the mean for that school type, as Table 20 shows. Schools that scored on or above the 'actual' mean on fewer WES sub-scales for their school type registered a low proportion of RPTIM 'what exists' results above the mean for RPTIM questions in their school type.

TABLE 20

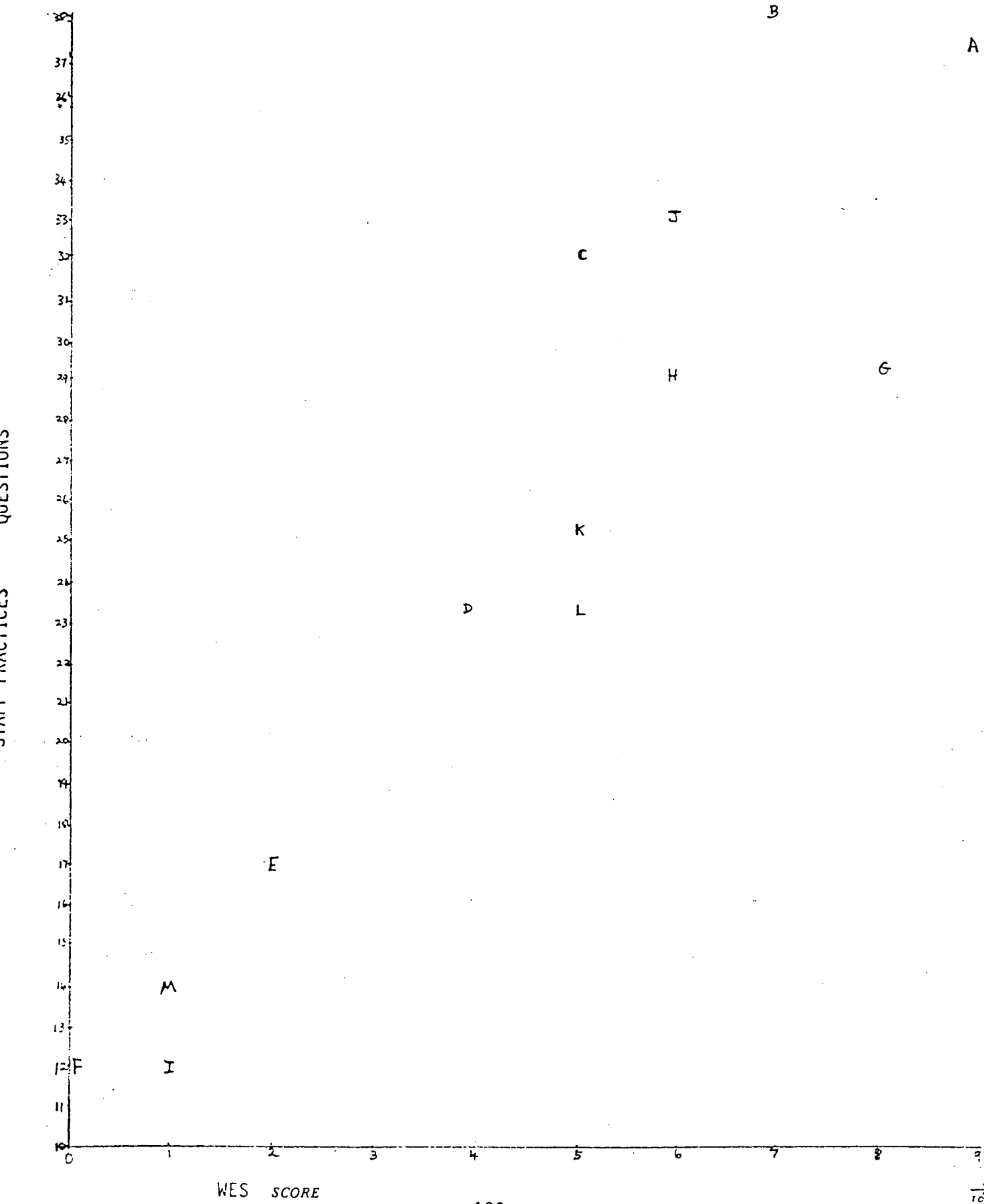
NUMBER OF SCORES EQUAL TO OR ABOVE 'ACTUAL' MEAN, BY SCHOOL TYPE			
	<u>SCHOOL</u>	<u>WES</u> (10 sub-scales)	<u>RPTIM</u> (38 questions)
<u>PRIMARY</u>	A	9	37
	B	7	38
	C	5	32
	D	4	23
	E	2	17
	F	0	12
<u>HIGH</u>	G	8	29
	H	6	29
	I	1	12
<u>K-10</u>	J	6	33
	K	5	25
	L	5	23
	M	1	14
(Docker, Fisher and Hughes 1985(e):96)			

Table 20 outlines WES and RPTIM results for a selection of particular primary and K-10 schools. As only three high schools completed both WES and RPTIM surveys, the results of all three schools are included. Table 20 shows WES scores on or above the 'actual' mean, by school type, for each of the ten sub-scales, as well as the RPTIM scores on or above the 'actual' mean, by school type, for each of the 38 staff-development practices. A clear relationship is depicted between low and high WES and RPTIM scores. This was also consistent for independent schools and secondary colleges. Where the school climate was perceived to be good by staff so were staff-development practices. It would therefore appear that schools with 'good' climates have 'better' staff-development practices taking place. The degree of association between these two sets of results is shown in Figure 23.

FIGURE 23

DEGREE OF ASSOCIATION BETWEEN WES & RPTIM SCORES

- Number of scores equal to or above 'ACTUAL' mean, by school type



7.4 SCHOOL CASE STUDIES - SOME EXAMPLES

In this section, two primary schools and two high schools have been selected from the school case studies, to explore the nature of the relationship between school-climate and professional-development practices. Of the two primary schools selected, one obtained 'good' scores in the WES and RPTIM results, the other obtained 'poorer' scores in both surveys. The same selection criteria were made with the two high schools. All case studies were completed in 1984. The schools selected and their scores in WES and RPTIM are outlined in Table 21. To provide confidentiality for schools and the school evaluators, the schools are code named by school type, according to 'good' or 'poor' WES and RPTIM scores. The evaluators are identified by a capital letter for quotation purposes. The school descriptions have been slightly changed in respect to geographical setting and size. Quotations are edited only to remove the schools' names or identity.

TABLE 21

SELECTED CASE STUDIES: NUMBERS OF SCORES EQUAL TO OR ABOVE 'ACTUAL' MEAN, BY SCHOOL TYPE				
<u>School</u>	<u>Type</u>	<u>Evaluator</u>	<u>WES</u> (10 sub-scales)	<u>RPTIM</u> (38 questions)
'Good-Pri'	Primary	A	9	37
'Poor-Pri'	Primary	B	2	12
'Good-Hi'	High	C	8	29
'Poor-Hi'	High	D	1	12

Summarised details from the school description provided by the school evaluators in chapter three of each of their case studies are detailed in the next section. The school descriptions are provided to give the reader a feeling for each school. Then follows an analysis of responses to some of the questions in the case study interview schedule that give supplementary information on the relationship between staff-development practices and perceived climate. Where responses are consistent, they are treated generally without specific acknowledgement to a school. Where differences in perceptions of staff are indicated, specific quotations of interviewees' responses are provided. Often these comments are contrasted between the schools in each school type.

7.4.1 Two primary schools: descriptions

7.4.1.1 'Good-Pri' School

'Good-Pri' school is situated in an outer suburb of Launceston, approximately 8 kilometres from the city centre. The area serves a Government housing estate, has mostly young couples, few shopping areas or Government services. Approximately 50 per cent of parents are unemployed, often without a car and depending on inadequate public transport. The school was started in 1976, it has grades from kindergarten to grade six, 300 students and 18 staff.

In the words of the school evaluator:

'Good-Pri' school consists of two rows of white portable buildings. The interiors of which are attractive and comfortable having every facility, e.g. storerooms, carpeted quiet areas, wet

areas, hot and cold water and plenty of space. The school serves a high proportion of Housing Department homes. The playground is very small - about one acre, but is attractively set out with gardens and ample playing equipment.'

(A, 1984:12)

'Of the students attending the school:

- . 30 per cent of dads are unemployed;
- . 25 per cent are single parent families;
- . 12.5 per cent have a stepfather or de facto parent;
- . 65 per cent of children had never been beyond Launceston and suburbs;
- . 60 per cent had never been on a holiday.'

(A, 1984:27)

Innovations were made during the school development to cope with the specific situation. Active steps were taken to relieve teachers from undue stress - they need time to relax, to consolidate, to plan, to counsel parents and to think. Finding the time involved departure from the inflexible one teacher-one class arrangement so the principal encouraged co-operative teams. The school buildings had large carpeted double teaching units and allowed this development.

Due to the isolation of the community, the parents, the parental relationships and the difficult children in the area - approximately 80 per cent of whom were considered 'at risk', a positive program of parent involvement was started to reinforce the link between school and home. When the school opened, 'Welcome' was written in big block letters across the school mat. A series of events and activities were planned to bring the parents into the school, a regular chatty newsletter of day-to-day happenings, school excursions always included parents, a school bus was purchased, the principal's office and other rooms in the administration area were changed to a 'drop in' centre. All these events tried to reinforce the notion that 'Ours was their Neighbourhood School'.

Twelve of the 18 staff were four-year trained, 10 had under five years of teaching experience, 12 were in the 20-29 years age-group. Staff were highly involved in professional development, in tertiary courses, out-of-school seminars and workshops. Many school-based activities were held and included preplanning and post-seminar sessions. One activity, 'Hands on Science' was held in a marine environment on the East Coast over a weekend. This activity involved spouses and their children, as well as preplanning and a follow-up half-day seminar for all school staff. The principal was an active participant and often a leader in staff-development activities.

7.4.1.2 'Poor-Pri' school

'Poor-Pri' School is a Catholic school situated in central Hobart. There are 217 pupils and 13 staff in the school. It was part of a larger complex, with two schools of 1,000 students on two campuses. The newly-created primary school (kindergarten to grade 6) was relocated in 1983 into premises vacated by the secondary classes. The school could best be described as a traditional primary school.

In the words of the school evaluator commenting on the relocation:

'This offered larger classrooms, several multi-purpose areas and structurally better classrooms, adequate sealed playing area and a good selection of fixed playground equipment. It is in a central position and thereby in close proximity to community centres (e.g. museum, swimming pool, library, theatres). This also facilitates regular interaction between school and community groups.'

(B, 1984:13-4)

Parents are involved in school activities in a number of ways. There is a small but active Parents and Friends Association which holds monthly meetings and organises regular social functions and fund-raising activities. Regular help is given in covering books, teaching craft skills and supervising small physical education groups, hearing reading groups, coaching sports teams, visiting classes to talk to students on specific topics. Most parents are from middle class families, have a positive attitude towards the school and realistic expectations of staff and children.

Compared with other primary schools, there are low levels of staff participation in professional-development activities (B, Appendix M), especially in tertiary courses and seminars outside school, with the exception of imposed seminars on religious education.

Of the 13 staff, 12 are females and 11 of these are over 40 years old. Only three of the staff are four-year trained. Most are experienced teachers who have been at the school for many years. (B, Appendix D).

As commented by the evaluator:

'Mid-career teachers comprise the entire full-time teaching staff . . . This particular school's situation is aggravated by a noticeable lack of motivation which the writer attributes to the following - small staff, complacency (secure positions and no transfer cases), retirement prospects for some staff, no promotional opportunities, lack of direct encouragement and no younger, more recently trained teachers with whom to exchange ideas.'

(B, 1984:38)

7.4.2 Two high schools: descriptions

7.4.2.1 'Good-Hi' School

'Good-Hi' School was opened in 1975. It is an 'open-plan' school set in a beautiful setting. In the words of the school evaluator:

'Located high on the foothills of Hobart with panoramic views of the city, river and local countryside, built very close to a bush reserve and the local sports centre, in its own spacious grounds, with attractively laid out areas, this school is singularly attractive.'

(C, 1984:Chapter 3,1)

The school caters for approximately 400 students and 28 teachers. It is extremely well equipped, has carpeted floors, a very good computer network and generally suitable architecture. Students study in grade areas for most of their time in the school. This facilitates easy movement of students and removes the need for sirens at the end of the period. The public address system is seldom used as a means of communication. The lack of sirens and public address announcements are features that make a day at the school a pleasant passage of unpunctuated time.

There are six main feeder schools. Grades 7 and 8 are not graded into levels or streamed in any way for the purposes of the timetable. In grades 9 and 10, heterogeneous groups continue in mathematics, social science, and physical education. There is a strong pastoral care program and twice weekly school assembly or alternatively grade assemblies. Staff meet once a week and this meeting takes the form of a general forum for any topic deemed important enough to be raised and

discussed. Decisions are almost always by consensus - formal voting is used very rarely. Senior staff meet once a week when the usual format is also that of a forum - a sharing of ideas and a discussion of issues that need to be raised in the main staff meeting.

Parental development is encouraged as much as possible. Community involvement is seen by the school to be a two-way process and the students are encouraged to become involved as much as possible. Two innovations in the school include:

- (1) Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading (USSR) - so-called 'Russian Reading' - which is held for 20 minutes of each day as part of the home-group time. There is a vertical arrangement of home groups instead of the more normal grade groupings.
- (2) Every fortnight the students write their own timetable for two of the six daily periods - this session is known by the acronym of CARE - Children Accepting Responsibility for Education. This session is popular with students, parents and staff.

Staff profiles show:

- . 12 females and 16 males;
- . 85 per cent of staff in the 20-29 and 30-39 age groups;
- . 35 per cent of staff have less than five years' teaching experience;
- . 55 per cent have 6-20 years' teaching experience;
- . approximately 90 per cent are four-year trained.

There are high levels of staff involvement in formal, tertiary-level, year-long courses and in professional-development activities within the school. The large number of school activities related to professional development include weekly staff and senior staff meetings, subject meetings once a fortnight, seminar activities, curriculum development and pastoral care meetings. School equipment such as video equipment, computers and photocopiers are used to support staff activities. In addition, time of teacher aides and office staff is used for typing and other support.

7.4.2.2 'Poor-Hi' School

'Poor-Hi' School is situated in a suburb of Hobart. The school is a comprehensive, co-educational secondary school situated in an expanding suburban area eight kilometres from the centre of Hobart. There are 842 pupils and 61 teaching staff.

The pupil population is drawn from a wide area and most students travel to school by bus. Students' backgrounds range from rural to suburban. The number of students coming to school from a poorer socio-economic background is increasing. The student intake is from 14 primary schools.

The school's buildings consist of classrooms coming off long and narrow corridors. Despite some recent developments the buildings in general are in need of repair. Internally, fair wear and tear and increasing petty vandalism in the classrooms, corridors and locker areas, have destroyed much of the aesthetic appeal the buildings may

Parent involvement in the school follows a fairly typical high school pattern. Parents and Friends run meetings each month, and usually 30 to 40 parents attend. Staff, apart from the principal, are conspicuous by their absence. A Mothers' Club also attracts about 15 mothers to meetings. There is some contact between parents and teachers during the grade 7 induction program and at parent-teacher evenings. Parents are kept informed about school events, sports results and policies by the principal's weekly newsletter.

There is little long-term planning in the school. Planning for school-wide activities is generally done within departments and tends to be on an annual basis. Resource allocation is made on an ad hoc basis. Staff advise the principal of their needs. There is little money for innovative programs. Decision-making is generally from the top down. Most decisions are made by senior staff and presented to general staff meetings.

Funding for professional development is not considered a priority by the school. School funds are seen as funds to be used on students and not teachers. Relief teacher support is seldom given by the school to assist teachers in out-of-school activities. Relief of staff to attend activities which adds to the supervision burden of teachers remaining at school is being increasingly reluctantly given. This is especially so when the activity involves the teacher possibly gaining a qualification. The general level of attendance at professional-development activities is very low - 28 staff attending no professional-development activities during one year, other than

staff and subject meetings. Few teachers are completing longer courses.

The staff profiles reveal:

- . 30 staff in the 20-29 age-group;
- . 46 staff are four-year or better trained; and
- . 32 staff have less than five years' teaching experience.

7.5 RESPONSES OF INTERVIEWEES TO SOME QUESTIONS IN THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (APPENDIX 7)

The questions discussed below are selected from the interview schedule (Appendix 7) to demonstrate aspects related to staff-development practices and perceived school climate. The questions discussed are numbers 8, 10, 16, 17, 18, 22, 23 and 26. The interview methodology, data collection and analysis were discussed in Chapter 4.

7.5.1 Q. 8. What support has your school given for you to undertake professional development?

About 60 to 80 percent of teachers in government schools indicated that schools were very supportive of and gave much encouragement to teachers who were involved in professional-development activities. This encouragement was generally provided in the form of money, teaching days, time off classes, and support from the principal, senior staff and peers. While some schools appeared to give more

support than others in some of these areas, they were all mentioned at interviews in most schools. Support from peers - by teaching or covering another teacher's class - was noted.

In addition, some evaluators mentioned that support for innovation, supply of classroom materials, and peer and consultant follow-up was provided after professional-development activities.

The evaluator at 'Good-Pri' School reported that all teachers agreed the school had given them full encouragement to undertake professional development and had supplied suitable classroom resources. Most agreed that they had enjoyed the support of the principal, senior staff and peers. ('Good-Pri' - A, 1984:53)

By contrast, responses from 'Poor-Pri' School were mixed. Some teachers reported full support in terms of relief, money for follow-up activities, and support from school administrators, family and friends. Others commented on limited support from the school, or support only when activities were in the teachers' own time. ('Poor-Pri' - B, 1984:Appendix J)

Support for students, as a result of returning from activities with new materials and good ideas, was seldom mentioned. Similarly, support from the community and superintendents was mentioned only in rare cases. Perhaps this is summed up by the comments of one evaluator:

'I was surprised to find that during the interviews only two people spoke of community support. Perhaps my probing for further information was at fault here, because our school does enjoy high involvement of parents and many parents have participated in professional-development activities with the teachers, especially in the arts and language areas.

'Not once during any of the interviews was mention made of the superintendents' contribution or their support of professional development. Perhaps the superintendents' role is seen only as one of assessment. This is unfortunate because most superintendents achieve their position as a result of a successful career as a "master teacher" and, if they were given sufficient clerical and other staff support in regional office, they may have more time to spend in schools advising and encouraging professional development.'

('Good-Pri' - A, 1984:53-4)

One evaluator commented:

'Support from the school in regard to undertaking professional-development activities ranged from very little to full encouragement - to the limit of available resources - in terms of money, time and resources. In a few instances it was felt that while support had been given, it was only in response to teacher-initiated involvement.

Follow-up support varied from none - little from colleagues in two cases - to full encouragement, depending on available resources, in three cases. Support was mainly in monetary terms while two people acknowledged principal support.

The greatest positive reaction to participation in professional-development activities came from some staff, parents, non-teaching friends and students.'

('Poor-Pri' - B, 1984:31-2)

It would be reasonable to suggest that the perceived degree of support varied with the interviewees and their expectations and the ethos of the school. Some evaluators reported almost total perceptions of full support, while others were more negative and mentioned that the enthusiasm of staff was dampened by lack of money, space, classroom resources, community interest, and support from consultants and superintendents.

7.5.2 Q. 10. What support has the school given for you to follow through what you have gained from professional-development activities?

Some evaluators said that most teachers in the school expressed full encouragement, but did not discuss the nature of this encouragement. Another group said interviewees in their schools observed that there was little or no support to follow through what was gained from professional-development activities.

Most evaluators said that the nature of support in following up ideas and skills gained at activities was viewed as passive rather than active. For example, nothing was placed in a teacher's way to implement new ideas, or, teachers could do things if they were motivated.

High school teachers generally felt that they could do what they liked, and it was more an individual's responsibility than that of a school. Perhaps this is related to their perceived autonomy as teachers.

On the other hand, some evaluators suggested their school principals and staff took the matter of follow-up very seriously, and made efforts to support staff and help them develop and apply what was learnt at activities. Again, these were schools with a good school climate when measured by WES. Support was in the form of finance, time, resources and, particularly, encouragement from the principal and senior staff.

The principal of one of these schools is quoted below:

'A valuable exercise I have found is to encourage teachers to share experiences during staff meetings. Teachers who have attended seminars or visited another school talk about their visit or experience, and this allows us all to share and often acts as a catalyst for further professional development. . . . When I was a classroom teacher one of my biggest frustrations was the lack of suitable classroom resources, so I have endeavoured to provide adequate resources so that teachers' needs are met as far as finances allow.'

('Good-Pri' - A, 1984:66)

7.5.3 Q. 16. Has your involvement in professional-development activities changed you in any way?

The majority of teachers said that professional-development activities had changed their professional attitudes and practices, or allowed them to be innovative. Many also said there had been a change in their philosophy to teaching. Examples quoted included improvement in the quality of teaching, widening of horizons, increased self-confidence, changes in methodology, and trying new ideas and materials.

'Everyone felt that involvement in professional-development activities had changed them - mostly in their professional practices and attitudes, but also for a few, in their philosophical approach to education and the fact that involvement encouraged them to introduce new programs and approaches. These changes had occurred over a period of ten years and the majority of the nine activities mentioned were teacher initiated.

The activities were deemed valuable because they increased confidence, expertise, knowledge and tolerance through active participation, i.e. discussions, sharing ideas.'

('Poor-Pri' - B, 19784:33)

Some teachers could name specific activities to which they attributed a complete and lasting change in their approach. Others argued that change was continuous, and growth from professional activities was more often a cumulative effect.

Selected comments from interviewees from one primary and one high school are shown below:

'GOOD-PRI' SCHOOL

- . 'Courses and passing have made me a more confident teacher and more aware of teaching in different areas - made me more susceptible to other people's ideas and thinking.'
- . 'I feel I am constantly undergoing changes in the above areas as I gain experience and work with different types of children. I cannot pinpoint changes occurring from a specific course, but rather an ongoing growth resulting from all types of professional development.'
- . 'Last year's science made me look at all subjects through the "skills" approach rather than "knowledge"-based.'
- . 'Our "language experience" [in school] seminars made me realise that all learning needs to be based on "experience".'
- . 'I am much more critical of what and how I'm teaching and I can evaluate my work better now. Professional-development activities have heightened my awareness of the individual differences and needs of children.'
- . 'Without trying to be egotistical - a development of potential in the course work taken.'
- . 'Language and education definitely changed my teaching style - my expectations of children changed. I became more aware of individual differences.'
- . 'In mathematics the "hands on" methods here changed me.'
- . 'My courses enriched my thinking and teaching.'
- . 'School-based activities and seminars have encouraged me to try new things - new ways.'

- . 'My special-education diploma course gave me a much deeper understanding of the learning difficulties experienced by some children, and how these problems affect their self image and behaviour.'
- . 'Team teaching needs a very different approach - I feel I've grown and developed since beginning team teaching - teaching "publicly" makes you more conscious of what and how you teach.'
- . 'Related arts and life skills programme has given me a new insight into the special needs of children who live in this area.'
- . 'I feel I have been growing professionally since I moved to this school. At my last school I felt frustrated and stifled, but here I've been able to initiate new ideas and try out new things - I've enjoyed team teaching and working with a wide range of age groups.'

('Good-Pri' - A, 1984:60-61)

'POOR-HI' SCHOOL

- . 'The change occurred about seven years ago. It had all kinds of activities. The change was due to the value seen which led to an experimentation of ideas presented at the seminar.'
- . 'Change has been gradual over the years - I have been growing in confidence. I was made more aware of expectations and facilities through a mixture of subjects.'
- . 'There was a questioning of values I held up until the time of the activity. I became unsettled in my ideas as it broke down personal standards and ideas in some respects. It led to the recognition that home situations were not taken into account by the activity organisers.'
- . 'The change was about six years ago. Activities included seminars with much reading and follow-up. I became more aware of available literature. I use this material as often as possible with classes.'
- . 'One year ago - relevance of the activity was seen.'
- . 'Two years ago - change of position in the school.'
- . 'Four years ago - received stimulation from the people I worked with.'
- . 'Six years ago - the seminar was practically based and relevant.'
- . 'Six years ago - change of position in the department.'
- . 'The seminar was made more bitter due to the feeling that the region does not fare well in availability of activities, which affects personal satisfaction.'

('Poor-Hi' - D, 1984:68)

7.5.4 Q. 17. To what extent have these changes been maintained?

A small number of interviewees expressed concern about this question for these reasons:

- . people tend to hold on to those things that they found useful in day-to-day practice;
- . people will modify ideas quite unconsciously to suit their own situation; and
- . it is pointless to talk of a time scale because changes are continually being adapted and modified to suit local conditions.

Most teachers said considerable changes had been maintained in classroom practice. Teachers said that it was a type of maturation, development of self-confidence and acceptance of new methodology and theory after classroom practice had shown them the value and benefit to students. Most said changes were not dramatic. They believed that most changes are built on and developed.

Comments from one primary and high school are listed below:

'GOOD-PRI' SCHOOL

- . 'My experience here teaching not only infants but also team-teaching up to Grade 4 has developed my confidence, and I am sure my teaching has improved and I've grown professionally. Yes, I'm sure the changes will be maintained or develop further (I hope).'
- . 'In the language area - e.g., sustained silent reading - I discarded that because my children are often competent and need to read aloud often to someone. Sitting looking at a book for ten minutes doesn't help these children unless it's a comic or picture book.' (discarded)
- . 'Fully maintained - as much as one can in terms of day-to-day work timetables.'
- . 'I tend to find that once I've made a change I've stuck to it until I've found it being bettered by someone else. When you stop looking for new ideas you become stagnant and get into a rut and thus become ineffective.'

- . 'I have a much better understanding of kids and I go about my teaching in a much more positive way.'
 - . 'One becomes more familiar with physical and emotional needs of children each year, especially after attending courses. I suppose changes are occurring all the time.'
 - . 'I am still learning - some ideas I try and then discard but in the main I feel I'm developing all the time.'
- ('Good-Pri' - A, 1984:62)

'POOR-HI' SCHOOL

- . 'The change occurred in the way of presenting subject matter in getting children to think.'
 - . 'Things were seen differently straight away. The change has been maintained since the seminar. Ideas presented at the seminar were seen as applicable in the subject department and were successfully instituted.'
 - . 'The attitudes of others towards the subject has changed in that the subject is becoming recognised as a necessary area of education.'
 - . 'The change occurred since beginning psychology and philosophy. Much help was given by a truly professional senior master.'
 - . 'The change has been maintained since two years ago due to a change of status (if not position) within the school where I have acted in a capacity a number of times when the permanent appointee has been absent.'
- ('Poor-Hi' - D, 1984:69)

7.5.5 Q. 18. In what ways do you think involvement in professional-development activities has improved the general climate and quality of learning in your school?

Most evaluators reported positive responses, and the type of comment is indicated below:

- . change in staff and student attitude;
- . a more professional attitude and acceptance of staff;
- . staff want to teach as well as possible;
- . improved quality of experiences and activities;
- . greater spontaneity by students;
- . adoption of more relevant teaching programs;
- . teachers no longer boring and dull;
- . makes everyone keener;

- . skills, confidence of teacher reflected in classroom and children;
- . teachers more aware of what they are doing;
- . teachers giving more educated advice;
- . improved awareness of change in staff;
- . keep up to date and alert;
- . instigating constructive course changes;
- . people shaken out of ruts;
- . increased involvement felt within the school;
- . promoted staff interaction, liaison;
- . more involvement in decision-making;
- . greater flexibility of staff;
- . a greater sense of belonging;
- . broadened the educational outlook of participating staff;
- . more open communication;
- . greater goodwill; and
- . school improvements engendered more enthusiasm.

The strength of positive responses in this question was clearly linked to the scores obtained by schools in the WES school-climate survey. This can be demonstrated by the comments made by all interviewees in two high schools below. The first school scored low on most WES scale items; and the second school scored fairly high on most WES scale items. The first school indicates a neutral or negative tone within the school, while the second was far more positive. It can also be noted that the second school has generally student/pupil-centered responses.

'POOR-HI' SCHOOL

- . 'It has improved, but involvement often takes staff out of the school too much. Staff could become more interested in development than in their actual jobs in the school.'
- . 'Much needs to be considered. Many attending seminars have only the bare time in the classroom. There could be little, none or even negative improvement. Assessment is difficult. There is a

lack of suitable relief. Staff must be prepared to use seminars to help kids.'

- . 'This is not really assessable. It makes other staff aware if the attendant gives a report following the activity.'
- . 'We must be more aware of the needs of students than the needs of teachers. More recognition of children's individual differences is required. There should be a greater demand for recreational activity-based seminars.'
- . 'Perhaps there has been an improvement - I don't think its assessable.'
- . 'It has improved, but only marginally.'
- . 'It is difficult to measure - perhaps it has improved.'
- . 'Professional-development activities are not thought to have any benefit.'
- . 'Activities make teachers more conscious of children's work and influence student activity and relationships.'
- . 'The school functioning has been affected somewhat by staff participation in professional development, but not necessarily to the best advantage for the school and its pupils. Adversely it takes time off from lessons; positively there are personal and professional gains by a number of teachers who can, therefore, implement some of this gain to the betterment of their department and the pupils that they teach.'
- . 'There have been changes in the learning and language programme. Children are prepared to read and write much more than in previous years.'
- . 'Such activities create an awareness and bring in fresh ideas which can be disseminated.'
- . 'The quality of teaching has gone back due to the lack of relief. That is, teachers not familiar with the department have to be used when others are involved in activities.'
- . 'I don't think the climate has improved - I can't see that it has. If it has improved, it is only indirectly and cannot be assessed.'
- . 'I don't think that I am in a position to assess. I am not sure what other staff are doing. There is no feed-back or reporting from those attending activities. It is so difficult to assess.'
- . 'Has professional development made any difference in the classroom situation?'
- . 'It is not really assessable. Is the school any better than it was ten years ago? Not much difference is evident.'

('Poor-Hi' - D, 1984:78-9)

'GOOD-HI' SCHOOL

- . 'By interactions amongst staff in looking at problems and solving them. Spontaneous happenings in the day-to-day running of the school.'
- . 'Helped in classroom strategies and general overall confidence - hence the quality of learning was increased by the successful teaching skills and learning strategies.'
- . 'Increased skills in planning and knowing why they are doing it. The quality of learning only improved with courses on teaching skills and strategies.'
- . 'These items are not really separable and the courses that I have done have improved both significantly.'
- . 'Nothing dramatic, but the acceptance and sharing of ideas in the school have resulted in a more enlightened approach.'
- . 'Enabled me to improve perceptions of students, develop acceptance of courses (e.g. needlework for boys) and run departments better because of administrations skills of senior masters/mistresses who have done appropriate courses.'
- . 'I listen more to children and I am more confident in the role of teacher because of the courses I've been on.'
- . 'Gave me more ideas to experiment with and hence more incentive to get into more professional-development activities.'
- . 'Greater skill in general teaching coming from professional-development activities equals a better climate and quality of learning. In particular, school-based seminars improve school climate.'
- . 'In my subject area? For sure!'
- . 'Made me more aware of the needs of children - opened up broader avenues and material for the students and myself.'
- . 'Allowed me to approach the subject more confidently - so children feel better, hence students respond better.'
- . 'Produced the development of a new subject in the school curriculum (health education) and increased the strength of the subject physical education in the school curriculum. The subject's consequent commitment has been excellent.'
- . 'My increased enthusiasm passes on to children and increased relevance in the material without loss of subject integrity.'
- . 'Professional-development activities increase staffroom sharing of experiences and the general climate is improved by the build up of enthusiasm - this is important.'

- . 'In pastoral care - improved climate - and I deal better with students individually as well as in groups. I am able to offer a better service in the library in response to student requests.'
- . 'The general climate is improved because I return energetic and enthused and the quality of learning is improved because of the new ideas I get to overcome student problems.'
- . 'Not sure - I suppose respect for students is enhanced by knowledge and skills in the teacher, so the increase of skill increases the knowledge.'

('Good-Hi' - C, 1984:Chpt.5:25)

In summary, most evaluators spent much time on this question and, bearing in mind the difficulty, were favourable to perceived beneficial changes in schools. This positive feeling is best captured in a quote from one interviewee:

'The whole school is a bustling, busy place, with people trying out new activities. I think this school has a marvellous learning climate.'

('Good-Pri' - A, 1984:67)

7.5.6 Q. 22. How can your school administrators best help to encourage professional-development activities in your school?

Evaluators said this question brought many suggestions, and a number are included below. They are listed to show the ranges of suggestions made by interviewees. They are not necessarily directed solely at the principal, but rather at senior staff or at somebody responsible for professional development within the school. However, obviously the responsibility for the climate alluded to below is with the principal. There are a number of suggestions related to communication:

- . communication must be adequate - publicising what is available;
- . information must be shared promptly;
- . principal must show interest;
- . make suggestions and recommendations;
- . be responsive, at times sympathetic to personal constraints;
- . enthuse people to go to activities;
- . positively encourage to point of pushing; and
- . bring courses to the attention of individuals.

Other, more general suggestions:

- . establish a positive climate towards professional-development activities;
- . make it easy to attend;
- . establish that attendance at activities is the norm rather than the exception;
- . be supportive;
- . create time;
- . senior staff must have confidence in staff;
- . set an example for others to follow;
- . be genuinely involved, listening and evaluating;
- . avoid frustrations to staff such as making them feel they are grovelling, or feel guilty for asking;
- . where possible, accept the judgment of teachers of worth of activities;
- . recognise personal commitments of staff;
- . give recognition to staff members who have participated in activities;
- . provide opportunity to follow up seminars;
- . have follow-up discussions after reporting;
- . feed ideas to people;
- . management style must be informal to encourage open discussion;
- . promote and arrange school-based activities;
- . principal must be aware of, and espouse, positive benefits;
- . keep school bubbling with curriculum initiatives;
- . provide relief if possible;
- . organise suitable flexibility of timetable and syllabus;

- . provide finance, and
- . draw attention to staff weaknesses and negotiate activities to improve the same.

Clearly, the principal is the major catalyst and the quality of interpersonal relationships are of the highest importance for staff. They often look to senior staff for advice, help and frank assessment of their strengths and weaknesses. Administrators must be absolutely professional in the management of their school, thus setting an example of real professionalism and dedication to their colleagues.

Teachers regard administrators as people who have expert knowledge and experience and who can assist them when they are in trouble or allow them to extend their own areas of expertise. Perhaps the best summary of teachers' perception of the role of senior staff is to say that senior staff should be encouraging participation in professional-development activities by establishing a 'collegial climate'. We all learn together.

Edd (1982) is accurate in stating that the principal has become everything to everybody. But perhaps the underlying rationale is that teachers recognise the influence and control of their careers, and are voicing their expectations. Brady's claim (1983) that as the principal goes, so goes the school, could be construed to mean that principals hold teachers' professional fate in their hands. After all, as Bolam and Baker (1976) suggest, neutrality is no more than lack of support.

Staff at 'Good-Hi' School indicated the expectations teachers held of the principal's role to assist their development:

- . 'Draw attention to weaknesses and then advise the teacher to go to a course. Draw attention of the staff to specific courses for interest and development. Constantly put ideas into heads, encourage them to do the activities, enthuse them to go to, and read about and do, new things and support them in all this.'
- . 'Positive encouragement is needed to the point of pushing - senior staff should be more aware of what's available and positively encourage attendance.'
- . 'Keep the school active at the curriculum level - encourage teachers to look at what they do, why they do it and what they can do. Maintain interest in daily "bread and butter" problems and solutions to these problems. Create an atmosphere of control or part control over the way the school is run (over your own destiny).'
- . 'By encouraging people to be involved, using the facilities to best advantage. Recognition and confirmation of the activities that people do and allow them to be put to work. But also be aware of the stress placed on the school by absence.'
- . 'Set aside time for meeting staff members on the timetable. Teachers in charge should encourage the teachers in the available subject material.'
- . 'Make the teachers aware of anything that is around - give them an individual nudge.'
- . 'Promote professional-development activities as worthwhile, and show them to be valued by the administration. Provide all the logistics needed for a smoother period of study - relief, preparation etc.'
- . 'Increase an awareness of what is available - provide relief teachers, develop a fair and equitable system for people to attend, and share the resources around amongst the subjects.'
- . 'Put the onus on the teachers about curriculum development and draw their attention to courses and the attendant benefits for the school.'
- . 'Take the initiative to organise school-based seminars - bring in guest speakers in such areas as philosophy or leader teachers, those who have a reputation for skill in a specialist area - not a consultant.'
- . 'Avoid supervision when people are away - provide relief or have a weekend seminar. Make the staff aware of what is available and not allow any negative responses.'
- . 'Give the opportunities and offer the staff every encouragement.'
- . 'Accept responsibility for the subject areas to promote activities that are useful to the school and very positively direct staff towards professional-development activities.'

- . 'Make it mandatory for recently promoted senior staff to do a development course that encourages and develops interests that produce results - get a superintendent to check this out.'
 - . 'Provide the materials for knowledge - journals, new books etc. Make sure that subject meetings look at the "hidden curriculum", ideas and development. Encourage involvement in subject association meetings. Point out the available seminars directly to staff - the provision of relief staff is vital to the encouragement.'
 - . 'Have a willingness to make facilities available, to employ relief (to allow resources and materials to be shared with other local subject-teachers).'
 - . 'Publicise and encourage what's available - encourage visits to other schools rather than dwell on this school.'
 - . 'There needs to be a direct approach by someone who checks the situation and goes to the person concerned. (A strong feeling of isolation was noted here from this teacher who is the only one in the school teaching their subject).'
 - . 'Actively encourage participation and feedback by participant to the relevant person or group. Beyond just looking at the "Ideas" booklet, point out who needs to go.'
 - . 'Allow free access to professional-development seminars (no restraints) and increase an awareness of what's available - i.e. give total encouragement.'
- ('Good-Hi' - C, 1984, Chpt. 5, 14-16)

At 'Poor-Pri' the evaluator subtly commented:

'The interviewees endorsed the offering of professional-development activities to all staff and felt this could best be encouraged by administrators (the principal) in the following ways - organising time off, setting a good example and provoking interest in, and enthusiasm for, professional development - e.g. by making staff aware of what is happening in this area on an individual or collective basis and then encouraging participation. Stimulus could also be provided by administrators organising seminars, bringing in guest speakers and by attending professional-development activities and reporting back to staff.'

('Poor-Pri' - B, 1984:35)

7.5.7 Q. 23. Does your school have a suitable professional library?

A large majority of teachers said their school library was unsatisfactory, or replied that they were unsure. In fact, evaluators

refer to comments like those listed below as the norm:

- . You're asking the wrong person.
- . No, I've never been.
- . Not enough.
- . Does this school have one?
- . I have my own.
- . Don't know if we have one.
- . I don't know where it is.
- . I haven't found it yet.
- . No, I haven't been made aware it's there.
- . Not suitable but adequate as I don't expect the school to provide it.
- . I don't bother looking for it.
- . As far as I know there isn't anything.
- . Haven't had time to find out.
- . Inadequate professional library.
- . Superficial, very little quality and depth.

This type of comment clearly indicates that most teachers obtain little value from their school's professional library. A number of interviewees said they tended to go at first to other staff members when they required books and periodicals. Often, teachers said schools' professional libraries were out of date, poorly organised, lacked depth, needed culling and refurbishing, and lacked materials on subjects.

A contrast between the comments of evaluators in the two primary schools is outlined below:

'The majority of staff members felt that the professional library was unsuitable and inadequate in all areas except Religious Education. It was acknowledged generally, that holdings needed to be sorted out and 'junk' disposed of. Whilst access was not good, given the present physical restrictions it would suffice. A few interviewees said they would appreciate a quiet area or room with sufficient space, effectively displaying library holdings.

To increase the use of the library it was overwhelmingly proposed that there be an increase in the quality and range of current books and periodicals. Other suggestions included staff being made more aware of library contents according to subject areas and by new materials being presented to staff by someone familiar with, and interested in the material. Multiple copies of some books would be valuable.'

('Poor-Pri' - B, 1984:35)

'Our school has an excellent up-to-date professional library and all teachers agreed that they found it valuable and used it regularly, but two replied that they used it occasionally and qualified their answer by saying when 'time permits and I have a "need"'.
'

('Good-Pri' - A, 1984:65)

Questions were raised as to whether the library should concentrate on materials for subjects, or general teaching methodology and if the funding necessary to update should be spent in a time of financial restraint. A common fault was the lack of communication about library materials.

7.5.8 Q. 26. What is the best way to obtain information on professional development in the school?

Most evaluators had agreement in the area of publications. All handbooks from the CCET and the 'Ideas' booklet should be drawn to the attention of staff and then left where teachers had access to them. Often this was in the staffroom or on a table under the staff noticeboard. Where there was a good professional library, interviewees suggested the handbooks should go there. This was especially so when the librarian was in tune with staff needs.

Information about professional-development activities was often brought to the attention of staff at staff meetings and was followed up in staff handouts or notices on the staff noticeboard.

The principal was not generally seen as the key disseminator of information on professional development. Rather, the principal's task was more in establishing good channels of communication and flow of information, setting a positive climate and acting as a catalyst for involvement of staff.

The role of the senior staff was usually perceived to be vital. They are the people most closely in contact with staff, and thus more aware of their needs. A good number of interviewees suggested a co-ordinator should be established in each school. Considerable opinion opposed this view, and argued that the task was too large for one person.

Teachers in high schools saw the senior masters/mistresses as the co-ordinators. Departmental heads were more aware of the needs in the subject, and of the staff with whom they worked. However, communication across departments was also seen to be vital. Someone also had to build up links to outside instrumentalities involved in professional development.

From an analysis of the responses to this question, it became obvious that most schools had not seriously considered the issues raised in this question. This was not the case in schools that scored well in the RPTIM-model survey, and had established good staff practices in their schools.

The evaluator of 'Good-Pri' school commented on routines developed to establish a flow of information in order to get things done within the school.

'At the beginning of each school year we appoint co-ordinators for the various subject areas, and this year Julie has taken on the responsibility of professional-development co-ordinator. She accepts the responsibility of ensuring that everybody received an Ideas booklet, a CCET handbook and helps fill out the appropriate application forms. She keeps the notice board up-to-date and informs staff of short courses as they become available.

We have a committee of teachers who discuss professional-development requirements for school-based activities, and they place suggestions and ideas before the staff at staff meetings. This committee circulated a questionnaire in February this year to assess teachers' needs and, as a result of the replies, we decided to apply for funds from the school improvement committee (Commonwealth Schools Commission) to run a school-based seminar "Hands on maths".

('Good-Pri' - A, 1984:68)

7.6 SUMMARY

The results of these WES and RPTIM surveys have shown that some schools have better school climates and staff-development practices than others. Primary schools clearly recorded the best scores by school type in both surveys. Furthermore, within each school type there is a range of climates and staff-development practices. Schools with good work environments also have good staff-development practices, suggesting that there is a strong relationship between school climate and staff-development practices when analysed for individual schools or by school type.

The argument for this strong relationship is enhanced by a detailed examination of the school case studies on professional development. Schools, whether primary, secondary, district-high or secondary colleges, that recorded good actual WES and RPTIM 'what exists' results show more positive staff responses to questions about professional development. These schools usually had a whole-school

philosophy and a policy or established procedures for staff development.

An analysis of some of the responses from the four schools described in this chapter, provided contrasts in teachers' perceptions of established procedures, programs and policies (written or unwritten). Discussion involved analysis of procedures in such areas as:

- . attendance at and communication about professional- development activities;
- . support provided from administrators and teaching peers;
- . provision of resources such as office staff or teacher aide time for typing and photocopying;
- . the involvement of staff in the planning of school-based activities;
- . follow-up activities and provision of resources to support teachers implementing ideas;
- . parental and community involvement;
- . provision of classroom resources;
- . providing child/student-focused professional-development activities;
- . adequate professional library facilities; and
- . the involvement of the principal in staff-development activities.

The case studies chosen were representative of schools with high and low WES and RPTIM scores. Responses from teachers in schools scoring high WES and RPTIM scores usually tended to be positive and

indicate definite policies and procedures encouraging staff to take part in professional-development activities. Response from, or involvement of parents in these activities was generally positive. Usually teachers in these 'good' schools perceived professional-development activities to be child/student-centred.

Other 'traditional' high and primary schools from urban and rural areas also performed well in the WES and RPTIM scores. Teachers in these schools had generally very positive interview comments similar to 'Good-Pri' and 'Good-Hi' schools. These 'traditional' schools also had staff-development procedures and policies that were well established, the level of involvement of staff in activities was high, and considerable support was provided to staff.

The staff-development practices in the schools that scored well in the RPTIM survey, were invariably characterised by many of the following indicators:

- . a good school climate (as measured by WES);
- . high levels of staff involvement in professional-development activities;
- . an established policy, procedures and a program to encourage and support staff-development in that school;
- . provision of support in the form of typing, photocopying, time off class, encouragement and materials to try new approaches, and a good professional library;
- . staff-development activities involving all school staff over a weekend or for extended periods after school;

- . a high level of professional debate among staff;
- . collegial and supportive relationships between teachers and senior staff;
- . meaningful parental and community involvement in professional-development activities;
- . encouragement of teachers' personal development;
- . a good information flow about professional-development activities among staff;
- . the principal being involved in these activities as leaders;
- . evidence of collaborative (committee) decision-making procedures;
- . focus of professional-development activities on considerations to improve student learning; and
- . allocation of resources to support activities to bring about change.

Teachers in these schools reported that the principal was supportive and staff practices were conducive to staff development. Relationships of trust and mutual support were emphasised most positively. The same could not be said of responses from schools that scored low in both surveys.

As described in Chapters 2 and 8, previous research has revealed evidence that a good school climate is a prerequisite to any meaningful improvement of schools. The Tasmanian survey's results add to evidence for this relationship. On this basis, the writer would argue that a relationship has been clearly established between staff-development practices and school climate in Tasmanian schools.

CHAPTER 8

SOME STRATEGIES FOR ENHANCING SCHOOL CLIMATE AND STAFF-DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES

The purpose of this chapter is to document information related to research question 7:

'Which approaches may be adopted to enhance the quality of school climate and staff-development practices?'

First, the literature related to school improvement, focusing on school climate and staff-development practices, will be reviewed. This is then compared with the literature about school effectiveness reviewed in Chapter 2. Differences between high and primary schools are also discussed. This is done in an attempt to explain some of the differences found in the WES and RPTIM results when analysed by school type, and further, to examine whether the literature suggests different ways to improve these different types of schools.

The second section of this chapter reports on the outcomes obtained, from a number of seminars conducted with 'expert' school practitioners in Tasmania in 1985. The methodology used was discussed in Section 4.8. The purpose of these seminars was to report the WES and RPTIM results (Chapters 4 to 7) to school practitioners, to allow them to reflect on these results, and then develop strategies to enhance the climate and staff-development practices in their schools.

The conclusion of this chapter illustrates a consensus between 'expert' practitioners and the researchers of the school effectiveness

and school improvement movements, about methods to enhance school climate and staff-development practices.

8.1 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ABOUT SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

8.1.1 Reservations About the Research of the Effective Schools Movement

Purkey and Smith (1983), MacKenzie (1983), and Rowan, Bassert and Dwyer (1983), have all expressed reservations about the research on which the movement for effective schools is based. They have suggested that educators should choose and apply prescriptions for schools cautiously. Purkey and Smith commented that:

'Although much basic research remains to be done, particularly research that corrects for the faults of the existing school effectiveness literature, the existing research is sufficiently consistent to guide school improvement efforts based on its conclusions.'

(Purkey and Smith, 1985:355)

They further suggested that:

- '(1) Research in several areas reached reasonably similar conclusions about the defining features of a school culture that are conducive to academic success. This includes classroom research on teacher effectiveness. (See, e.g., Anderson, Evertson and Brophy 1979; Good and Grouws 1979; reviews by Brophy 1983; Rosenshine 1983).
- (2) Research into educational innovation, implementation and recent theories of school organisation reinforce the role that can be played by school culture in school improvement (e.g. Berman and McLaughlin 1977; Meyer and Rowan 1978; Miles 1981; Sarason 1971; Weick 1976).
- (3) Literature from other sectors confirms many of the ideas embodied in prescriptions for change found in the most persuasive school effectiveness literature. In this regard, Kanter (1983), O'Toole (1981) and Peters and Waterman (1982) stand out with their focus on the crucial impact of workplace culture.

- (4) The findings of the effective schools' research square with common sense and with the experience of practitioners. While neither commonsense nor experience guarantees correctness, they do strengthen the case beyond the realm that can be reached by theory alone . . .'
(Purkey and Smith, pp. 355-6).

Starratt also indicated that:

'the literature on effective schools describes what schools, already defined as effective (by higher than expected achievement test scores) . . . do, the literature on school improvement deals more with the strategies and dynamics of becoming an effective school.'

(Starratt, 1985:6)

8.1.2 School Improvement - Working Through People. (Processes, People, and Innovations)

It is argued, on the basis of the evidence provided from the school effectiveness literature, that the existing research is sufficiently consistent to guide school improvement efforts. Many 'characteristics' of school climate and staff-development practices, drawn from researchers' conclusions, were described in Chapters 2 and 3 of this thesis. It would be argued by many researchers that there is a logical relationship between many of these characteristics and school improvement. The characteristics identified are alterable and schools can improve aspects of school climate and staff-development practices and therefore improve their effectiveness.

However, school improvement is about change of the people in the workplace. Psychological relationships need to be attended to before the strategies and dynamics of school improvement can occur. For example, the people in the workplace need to see the reason for

change, they need to talk to each other, to work collaboratively to develop strategies and obtain ownership of changes, to support and co-operate with others, to work out strategies to achieve their aims, to be sensitive to one another, and to be aware that people are at different stages of development. These are some of the 'people considerations' needed to effect change, the commonsense of motivating people to want to change. Change here is defined as a process. A brief review of the work of Starratt, Lieberman and Miller, Little, Fullan, Clark et al. and Miles et al. follows. Each of these authors discusses the specifics of the strategies and dynamics of working with people to obtain change at the workplace.

Most models for school improvement belong to the larger body of studies about change in educational institutions. Starratt (1986:6-7), after reviewing Loucks-Horsley and Hergert's model for school improvement (1985:xii), further commented that such models are perceived as a prescription for change and that they belong to a larger body of studies about change in educational institutions (Berman and McLaughlin, 1978). Recently, when re-examining school-improvement themes and variations, Lieberman and Miller suggested that there is not much new knowledge or information about staff development and school improvement. This is supported to some degree by Seymour Sarason's conclusion that 'the more things change, the more they remain the same' (cited in Lieberman and Miller, 1984:16).

Lieberman and Miller suggested that their re-examination of the evidence for school improvement made them rediscover some 'tried and

true' notions that have become enriched and expanded over time. Among them are:

- '.
- . Working with people rather than working on people.
- . Recognizing the complexity and craft nature of the teacher's work.
- . Understanding that there are unique cultural differences in each school and how these affect development efforts.
- . Providing time to learn.
- . Building collaboration and co-operation, involving the provisions for people to do things together, talking together, sharing concerns.
- . Starting where people are, not where you are.
- . Making private knowledge public, by being sensitive to the effects of teacher isolation and the power of trial and error.
- . Resisting simplistic solutions to complex problems; getting comfortable with reworking issues and finding enhanced understanding and enlightenment.
- . Appreciating that there are many variations of development efforts; there is no one best way.
- . Using knowledge as a way of helping people grow rather than pointing up their deficits.
- . Supporting development efforts by protecting ideas, announcing expectations, making provisions for necessary resources.
- . Sharing leadership functions as a team, so that people can provide complementary skills and get experience in role taking.
- . Organising development efforts around a particular focus.
- . Understanding that content and process are both essential, that you cannot have one without the other.
- . Being aware of and sensitive to the differences of the worlds of teachers and other actors within or outside of the school setting.'

(Lieberman and Miller, 1984:16-17)

Basically, Little (1982) concurred when she summarised her previous research work by concluding that staff development is most influential where it:

- '.
- . ensures collaboration adequate to produce shared understanding, shared investment, thoughtful development, and the fair, vigorous testing of selected ideas;
- . requires collective participation in training and implementation;
- . is focused on crucial problems of curriculum and instruction;
- . is conducted often enough and long enough to ensure progressive gains in knowledge, skill and confidence; and

- . is congruent with and contributes to professional habits and norms described elsewhere as norms of collegiality and experimentation.'

(Little, 1984:93)

Fullan contends that:

'Change is a process, not an event.'

(Fullan, 1982:41)

The interactive phases of the process are described typically as adoption, implementation and continuation. Fullan, however, notes that the implementation phase is a fragile phase on the road to continuation, because:

'... educational change is a process of coming to grips with the multiple realities of the people who are the main participants in implementing change.'

(Fullan, 1982:82)

Miles et al. (1987) offer such a process when discussing the 'institutionalisation' of a change within a school. For Miles, this occurs when a change in a system becomes stabilised and lasting.

'... Institutionalisation is the process of "building in" changes in a lasting way, so that they continue as stable, routine aspects of a school's life after the formal change effort is over. ... a stabilising modification, aimed at improvement of an institution or part of it - its processes products or capacities. It is a development process that appears during and after the implementation of an innovation.'

(Miles, Ekholm and Vandenberghe, 1987:244)

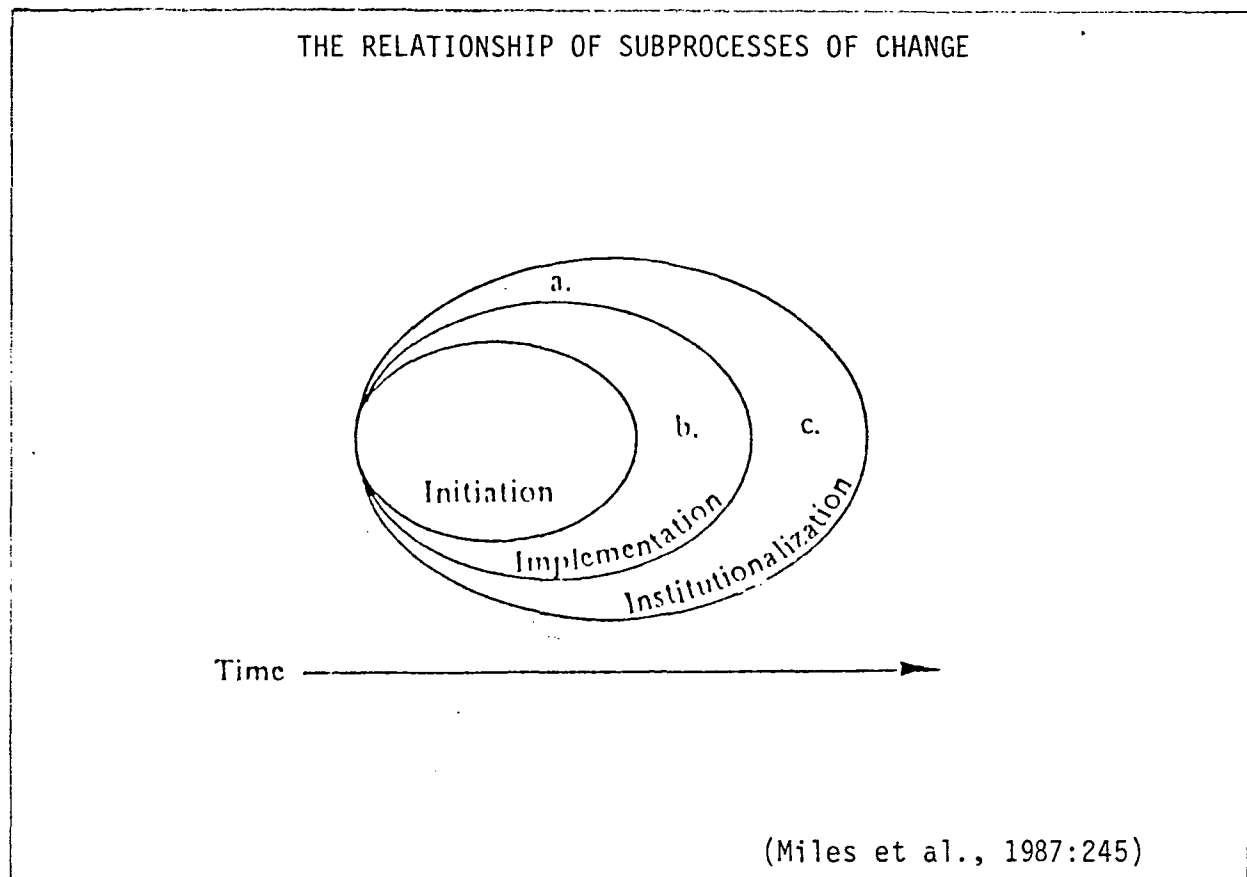
Miles views this change process to have three major subprocesses:

'"Initiation" involves the proposal of new ideas, mobilisation of energy, and the choice to begin a change. "Implementation" means putting new ideas, activities or programs into practice. "Institutionalisation", our focus, means stabilising and continuing the newly implemented change.'

(Miles et al., 245)

Miles et al. suggest how these three subprocesses are connected together in Figure 24 below.

FIGURE 24



Furthermore, Miles (1983), when unravelling the mystery of why some innovations are institutionalised and others fail, noted that according to past research and conventional wisdom a 'good', well-mastered innovation that its users endorse or support will somehow just stay around. Miles found that enthusiasm, skill and effectiveness of the innovation are insufficient conditions for institutionalisation of any change. Miles argues:

'Rather, what seems required is strong attention of administrators to stabilising and supporting the innovation, extending its use to a large group, and making provisions to protect the innovation against threats of personnel turnover that are endemic in schools ... and another crucial element ... is teacher-administrator harmony.'

(Miles, 1983:19)

Thus Miles considers that teacher mastery and commitment, and administrative action are critical for institutionalisation and that linkage between them can be achieved.

Miles et al. (1987) state that the time it takes for institutionalisation to occur is usually between two and twenty years depending on its scale and nature, and that deliberate efforts to institutionalise a change usually succeed less than half the time.

The author also views change as a process, and is comfortable with the concepts and processes suggested by Fullan and by Miles et al. Both are consistent with the RPTIM model which is more explicit in delineating the necessary stages of readiness, planning, training, implementation, and maintenance. The model has the advantage of listing the specific staff-development practices that may be considered when undertaking change efforts. The model put forward by Miles et al. has the advantage of visualising change as a more simple holistic process. In addition, Fullan, Miles et al., Lieberman and Millar, and Little, all stress that people are the central actors in implementing the change.

Changes in schools are carried out by teachers - and teachers' concerns focus on the point of effective action, the classroom. If teachers are to be committed to implementing a change, an innovation, they must believe that it will improve classroom learning. Teachers must be encouraged and nurtured when changes in an organisation are occurring. Supportive administrative action to develop aspects of the school climate are critical if innovations are to be institutionalised.

Miles also encapsulates the importance of some aspects of school climate that interact upon teachers when school improvement activities are undertaken.

'Institutionalisation of a change is more likely when a school is innovative, receptive, and supports collaboration among professionals; when its structures and procedures are well-integrated, with enough human and financial resources to manage change; and when there is a felt need and pressure exerted by an advocate for the change.'

(Miles et al., 1987:246)

This review of the literature is consistent with the educational platform postulated by the author when developing the notion of a hypothetical 'good' school in Chapter 2. It was based on a set of values of how people relate and work together, how learning takes place for teachers, and on beliefs about what motivates staff and how they grow within the teaching profession. It was about creating an environment where people's needs are considered and they are encouraged and given freedom to take risks, to innovate, and to learn. Teachers were viewed as the central actors, a positive school climate and good staff-development practices essential.

8.1.3. The Leadership Role in School Improvement

There appears to be some ambiguity about the leadership role of the principal in school improvement. Berman and McLaughlin (1978) stated that:

'The principal is the gatekeeper of change. If you had to pick one figure in the school system who really matters in terms of whether you get change or not, it is the principal.'

(Berman and McLaughlin, cited in
Lieberman and Miller, 1984(b))

Lieberman and Miller challenged this quotation by stating that:

'We want to challenge that notion a bit because, given what we know about the role, such a view of the principal seems in conflict with much of reality.'

(Lieberman and Miller, 1984(b):77)

They cite their own research and that of others to emphasise the gap between the ideal and the real work of the principal. They further argue that principals reveal a spread of leadership initiatives, going from a very timid openness to a very small initiative on the part of a few teachers, to active involvement and vigorous pursuit of a school-wide change.

They went on to comment that:

'Principals are important; they may even be critical, but they are not the only initiators of change. They are not our last and only hope. Leadership is interactive. A school shapes a principal as much as the principal shapes a school. A teacher or a group of teachers with an idea may influence a principal without ideas . .

Making improvements does not depend on one person, one variable, one idea. For we have learned from our experience that even with the best of leaders in the most ideal of conditions, nothing is assured.'

(Lieberman and Miller, p. 79)

Little (1984) also traced the change in the role of the principal, from the 'gatekeeper' in the 1960s and early 1970s to the 'change agent' of the late seventies. In Little's studies the principal increasingly exhibited actions that could be viewed as assisting or promoting change rather than merely permitting or approving change. Little also pointed out that in secondary schools, school size and the complexity of the curriculum may make such direct involvement in the instructional program difficult. She referred to work by Joan Lipsitz which suggests that in secondary schools where there is an established

structure of leadership, selected teachers, such as departmental heads or team leaders, can take initiatives in matters of curriculum and instruction. Much recent literature refers to necessity of a critical mass or leadership density in schools that are successfully undergoing change.

Clark, Lotto and Astuto, when reviewing documented research on the ability of the principal to influence change, wrote:

'This influence is often communicated through persuasion and assertion of high expectations. Principals who become involved in change are more likely to function in a facilitative, co-ordinative role rather than in a directive role. The actions taken by effective principals include: (1) communicating the importance and the likelihood of successful implementation, (2) providing and arranging for the training and materials necessary for successful implementation, and (3) scheduling time for teachers to work with and on the new program or practice.'

(Clark, Lotto and Astuto, 1984:54)

Most researchers agree that good leadership is a necessary ingredient to school improvement and that teacher-administrative harmony is a crucial element.

8.2 COMPARISON OF THE LITERATURE ABOUT SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT AND SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

In the literature review in Chapter 2, the relationship between the effective schools movement, school climate or culture, and staff-development practices was described. Through examination of numerous research studies, the review indicated that positive climates and staff-development practices are characteristics of 'good' or 'effective' schools. In addition, the strategies and processes for constructing a positive school climate and good staff-development

practices were discussed. In section 8.1, some processes and strategies to assist school improvement were reviewed and discussed. This section will compare the findings and generalisations of these bodies of research to see whether the suggestions made by researchers can be used conjointly in order to understand better how schools strive to change and to attain more effective instructional outcomes.

In an extensive comparative analysis of these two lines of inquiry, Clark, Lotto and Astuto succinctly commented that:

'The outcome variable of central interest to the school effectiveness researcher has been a measure of student achievement; for the school improvement researcher, it has been a measure of level of adoption of an innovation by a school or school system. The inquirers are, in fact, in pursuit of different questions. In the former case, the question is whether altering resources, processes and organisational arrangements will affect student outcomes. In the later case, the issue is whether schools can change, and, if they can, how they do it. However, although investigating distinguishable questions using disparate outcome variables, these traditions of educational research have shared input and process variables. They have examined leadership, school climate, teachers, students, curriculum materials, patterns of curricular organisation, instructional tactics and strategies, financial resources, facilities and equipment, and parental and school-community involvement in education.'

(Clark, Lotto and Astuto, 1984:41-2)

Clark et al. review the school effectiveness movement and state that up until the early 1970s the 'search for instructionally effective schools (IES)' studies generated a consensus about a cluster of factors noted as characteristic of such schools:

1. Strong administrative leadership;
2. A climate of expectation for satisfactory student achievement;
3. An orderly but not oppressive school climate;
4. A focus on pupil acquisition of basic school skills;
5. A system for continuous monitoring of pupil progress; and
6. Resources that can be focussed on the fundamental learning objectives of the school.'

(Clark et al. 1984:47)

Clark et al. quote MacKenzie's summary of the dimensions of effective schooling growing out of the case study, process and evaluation literatures as shown in Table 22. In this table (of which only the leadership core element is shown), MacKenzie draws a distinction between the 'core' and 'facilitating' elements simply by the frequency with which each element was reported in the school effectiveness literature. Only the leadership dimension is shown as it clearly relates to the central thrust of this thesis. Other dimensions were efficacy and efficiency.

The characteristics listed in MacKenzie's dimensions have been fully reported in Chapter 2 of this study; they reinforce the importance of the key characteristics of school climate and staff-development in the literature about school effectiveness.

Clark et al. develop a number of propositions about effective schools. Their fourth proposition states that:

'The key lies in the people who populate particular schools at particular times and their interaction within these organisations. The search for excellence in schools is the search for excellence in people.'

(Clark et al., 50)

This proposition certainly concurs with the views of Lightfoot discussed in Chapter 2.

In their examination of the school improvement literature, Clark et al. focus on the variable clusters typically employed in the school

TABLE 22

DIMENSIONS OF EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS AND SCHOOLING	
Core Elements	Facilitating Elements
<u>Leadership</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Positive climate and overall atmosphere Goal-focused activities toward clear, attainable and relevant objectives Teacher-directed classroom management and decision-making In-service staff training for effective teaching 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Shared consensus on values and goals Long-range planning and co-ordination Stability and continuity of key staff District-level support for school improvement 	
<p>(Note: dimensions on efficacy and efficiency not included)</p> <p>(cited in Clark, Lotto and Astuto, 1984:48-9)</p>	

improvement literature, that is, processes, people, innovations, and resources. Aspects of the first three clusters of variables related to the literature of change processes, working with people and successful innovation were discussed in Section 8.1. In terms of resources, Clark et al. considered that people and dollars affect the success of school improvement efforts.

According to Clark et al.,

- Implementation requires effective staff development that combines
- (1) task-specific training activities,
 - (2) on-going continuous support for the implementers, and
 - (3) opportunities for regular meetings and interaction among teachers, administrators, and external assisters.

Staff development, like change itself, can be described as a process, not as an event. It needs to begin at the pre-implementation stage, be tooled to fit the innovation, and continue on through institutionalisation. The focus of staff development must be not only on the development of new skills, but also on the development of new concepts and behaviours in a supportive organisational climate . . .'

(Clark et al., 1984:57)

They further state that:

'The research is clear that external facilitators, internal facilitators, materials, time for teacher planning and interaction, and time for teachers to implement the innovation are all important components of a successful school improvement program.'

(Clark et al., 1984:58)

As with the effective school, effective school improvement programs are probably best represented, according to Clark et al.

'as a "syndrome" or "culture" of mutually reinforcing expectations and activities.'

(Clark et al. 1984:58-9)

Again Clark et al. offer a set of propositions related to the set of variable clusters of processes, people, innovations and resources. In addition, a critical assessment of the knowledge base of instructionally effective schools and school improvement research is provided. They particularly note the limitations of research from a user's point of view.

'If one is contemplating an effective school improvement effort at the high school level, the evidence from the IES studies on the role of the principal is highly suspect. The SI emphasis on external assisters may be an unnecessary overemphasis for a locally generated change project. The evidence on external assisters come from the evaluation of federal improvement programs that mandated their inclusion in projects.'

(Clark et al., 1984:61)

Such a conclusion may be drawn because most IES studies occurred in primary schools.

Farrar, Neufeld and Miles (1984) urged caution about the limitations of research behind the effective schools movement when derived from primary schools and applied to secondary schools.

They wrote of the complicated factors that make it difficult to introduce comprehensive changes of any sort at the high school level. However, they stated that:

'the procedures that characterise effective school programs can move high school reform in the right direction by bringing people together to talk about their interests and to forge a consensus on goals. This process - not research-based definition of effectiveness or the correlates of effective schools - may be the real contribution of effective school programs. ...

...But consensus on the criteria of effectiveness is not enough to make high schools more effective. School staff members will need more training, technical assistance, and released time than they get at present, if they are to attain their goals - particularly those that relate to improving classroom instruction and school management. And these things, of course, cost money.'

(Farrar, Neufeld and Miles, 1984:706)

Clark et al. summarise their comparison of the two lines of inquiry by commenting that researchers and theorists who have worked in the IES and SI fields have at the very least provided what Ralph and Fennessey (1983:693) described as 'a rhetoric of reform . . . a set of normative principles.'

Clark et al. argue

'that the normative principles might be treated tentatively but that the total package of description and findings offers a practitioner's guide to action that exceeds substantially the accumulated experience of any individual . . . there is much to be learned and examined in these literatures that will illuminate options for effective practice.'

(Clark et al., 1984:64)

Again the suggestion is provided, concurring with the views of Purkey and Smith described in section 8.1., that the body of knowledge and research developed in these two lines of inquiry offers a practitioner's guide to action. The suggestions and findings square with common sense and the experience of practitioners.

These suggestions are related to change being considered a process and achieved by people. Consideration of the psychological relationship between people in the workplace is essential if they are to work together to plan, implement and maintain change. The literature of school improvement reviewed in this chapter deals with the strategies and dynamics of change and developing a more effective school. The essential 'characteristics' of school climate and staff-development practices, conceptualised from the literature about the school effectiveness movement, are again identified in the body of literature about school improvement and change. These concepts appear to be essential when groups of people are working together to effect change in an organisation.

8.3 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The issue of differences between primary and secondary schools and the implications of these differences for school improvement, were debated during the Tasmanian evaluation. Other recent writers such as Hargreaves (1984), Goodlad (1983), Sizer (1984), Lightfoot (1985) and Purkey and Smith (1985) have also discussed these issues.

Purkey and Smith suggested that secondary schools differ from primary schools in at least three ways:

- (1) 'Secondary schools are organisationally more complex than elementary schools. Typically they are larger, have more students and staff and consequently a bigger physical plant, and they have a broader curriculum with a multiplicity of goals transmitted through a department structure combined with student tracking.
- (2) To a considerable extent because of their organisational complexity, secondary schools are politically more complicated. There are several administrative layers . . . as subject matter specialists, teachers are less likely to share common educational methods and goals; depending on the curriculum tract they teach, teachers may also possess widely different expectations for student performance and achievement.
- (3) Secondary school students differ from elementary students in ways that go beyond their being chronologically older, developmentally more advanced, or having more diverse educational and occupational objectives. Secondary school pupils have established educational histories resulting in their possessing definite and varied attitudes towards schooling, student roles, and norms for work and behaviour. In addition, their reference groups extend beyond school or family, and the culture of those groups, especially peers, may or may not be complementary to that of the school (see Apple 1982, Ogbu 1978, Willis 1977). Therefore, they are likely to be less passive and more resistant to change than primary school students.'

(Purkey and Smith, 1985:367)

Following the publication of results of the evaluation of the school climate and staff-development practices in Tasmania there was some discussion of the differences in perceptions of teachers in primary and secondary schools. As this research was completed independently and before the research by Purkey and Smith was published, details of teachers' perceptions of the differences between primary and secondary schools are provided below.

- . In primary years, children are largely concerned with 'child things', but in high schools children experience the emotional problems of adolescence and other complex pressures which cause disenchantment with society.

- . Each day a primary school teacher has about twenty-five student contacts compared with about 150 in high schools. Thus, pressures of knowing individuals and their learning styles is easier in primary schools. It was suggested that there may be a difference here between work pressure and work volume.
- . Primary teachers have more control over their own destiny in teaching styles, running of groups, displays, etc., because they work with a more stable group of students. They perceive their purpose and direction more clearly. In addition, it may also be easier to build children's self-esteem and confidence in primary schools for similar reasons. In high schools, teachers move around different classes, or different groups of students use the one classroom, and so teachers don't have as much control over physical factors such as classroom organisation and display. There is more ambiguity and confusion over purpose and direction.
- . In high schools, community pressures and expectations are stronger. Each student's schooling is finally 'judged' externally. Thus, it is the expectation of parents in the secondary school that their children who have any problems with basic skills or emotional problems will have been 'picked up' from where they are and 'brought up to standard', even if these problems were diagnosed in primary school years. There is the additional problem of the Schools Board results being imposed on top of all this. Furthermore, students leave school and are still expected by parents and the community to obtain a job.
- . Evaluating a student's performance and reporting to parents is less complicated at primary level.
- . Peer pressure on children is stronger at high schools, although this could be a positive or negative factor.
- . It is cheaper to provide good buildings for primary schools than for high schools.
- . Smaller schools should have more staff cohesion. Secondary schools have more potential for factional groups and pressure groups to develop.
- . Teachers in secondary schools usually know less about individual children. There is a need to know more about each child's intellectual capacity, physical and emotional development and other factors such as those affecting their attitudes and motivation. Perhaps if this is not done the task of teaching may need to be restricted.
- . The high school is usually organised and administered by subject departments. A good teacher is expected to impart knowledge of a subject, understand general learning processes across all basic skills and help each child in all sorts of ways. Thus, a mathematics teacher trained at university is expected to encourage children to love the subject. As well, the teacher must diagnose learning difficulties, such as children not being able to read the

text; help each student overcome such difficulties and help in other pastoral-care areas. All this, and more, while seeing the child for forty minutes, in five separate periods during the week, with perhaps thirty other students in the class, and maybe in three different impoverished classroom environments.

- . Secondary teachers usually perceive themselves primarily as communicators of subject knowledge and don't see the necessity of general or skill orientation. Furthermore, they are not expert as teachers of reading or at diagnosing reading difficulties. There are seldom coherent school policies encouraging such processes.'

(Docker et al., 1985:270-1)

While many of the differences can be attributed to the size and complexity of a secondary school, it would appear that many of these issues could be partly overcome if teachers had fewer student contacts in secondary schools, for example, one teacher to a maximum of 80 student contacts as suggested by Ted Sizer (1984:229) for the 'coalition of essential schools'. For a school to function in this manner, teachers may need to have a more generalist orientation to teaching and to children's learning. The complexities of student subject choices and the diversity of the secondary curriculum is acknowledged, and yet somewhere the problem of time for teachers to complete their demanding tasks must be addressed and the additional dollar resources made available.

These observations make it clear that in school improvement, the stages of readiness, planning, training, implementation and maintenance may differ in some respects, including each of the following:

- (1) Teaching (instructional) focus. Primary schools may attack specific, basic skills such as numeracy and literacy, whilst secondary schools need to look at developing and implementing a common curriculum or competencies across the curriculum. The training aspect in secondary schools may be conducted through subject departments as common instructional methods may not be desirable.
- (2) Leadership. Primary principals may play a more central role in providing leadership, whereas secondary schools will need to apply leadership skills of most senior staff. Perhaps senior staff in secondary schools may play a more subtle role of identifying, developing and supporting leadership from a variety of sources.
- (3) Process. Farrar and her associates (1983) described programs for effective schooling as 'process reforms' that strive to capture the interest and imagination of school faculties, to revitalise those who are demoralised and to generate enthusiasm for joint work on common goals. They suggested that characteristics of high schools may create obstacles to successful implementation of process factors such as collaborative planning and collegial relationships, sense of community, clear goals and high expectations commonly shared, and order and discipline. It is also interesting to note that the Californian School Improvement Program (Bergman et al., 1982) which emphasised the process for improving instruction, reported that implementation of strategies for school improvement were more faithfully followed in primary schools. Even when implemented in secondary schools such

strategies were less likely to have a significant and positive impact on the school as an organisation and on relations between the school and community. When these strategies were implemented as envisaged, however, the Californian program was slightly more likely to result in student-centred improvement in secondary schools. Although the process for change is more complicated at the secondary level, this conclusion suggests that these strategies could be powerful tools for school improvement.

Purkey also noted that the process of change may be particularly important in secondary schools, where the 'diversity of desirable student outcomes requires that the decision-making process allows for varied needs and interests to be reflected in both form and content of school improvement' (Purkey, 1984:4). He concluded that careful attention to the process, therefore, 'enhances the legitimacy of the improvement effort'. It is for this reason that the model proposed by Purkey and Smith (1985:369, see Figure 4, pp 58-59) addressed both the structure and process of school improvement. Thus, it is more likely to avoid the problems encountered at the secondary level by less comprehensive programs.

- (4) Time. The Work Environment Scale (WES) studies in the Tasmanian evaluation of professional-development practices indicated that high school teachers believed that they had a much higher level of work pressure than primary school teachers. This is most likely related to the secondary teachers' perception of the hectic pace of their school days. The research of both Goodlad (1983) and Sizer (1984) suggests dramatic changes are needed in reducing the

number of teacher-student contacts and the amount of direct instruction time for high school teachers. As a result, teachers in high schools must make efforts to create time for staff discussion and to allocate resources for planning and staff development. These practices appear more critical in secondary schools.

- (5) School goals. Whilst change throughout the school is the goal, secondary schools may best be approached incrementally through subject departments or through faculty interest-groups (see Farrar et al., 1983; Hargrove et al., 1981; Pfeffer 1981; Talbert 1980).
- (6) Student body. Students' perceptions of school life in secondary schools are important. Rutter et al. (1979) believed that effective, inner-city London high schools offered students the opportunity to take responsibility for school activities and care. Newman (1981(b)) argued that student participation in school governance is likely to reduce alienation and, logically, can lead to decreasing students' resistance or, more positively, increasing students' co-operation. The Safe Schools Study (U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare 1978) recommended membership of students on rule-making bodies for matters of order, safety, and discipline. On the basis of these and other studies, Purkey and Smith suggested that student participation can be a powerful contributing factor in most situations, and they also argued for encouraging involvement of students in school improvement projects (Purkey and Smith, 1985:370).

Again these elements are interrelated in normal daily school life. For instance, good leadership in schools would presumably apply a model of management including processes of collaborative planning, and of providing autonomy to promote teams of teachers to make decisions related to their work. This in turn should promote collegial relationships among staff. Most school leaders would take heed of the huge body of literature about change that discusses ways to motivate teachers in order to achieve changes. In addition, good leadership would aim at articulating school goals with an instructional focus. Views of the school community and especially of students should be sought if ownership of the changes to the agreed goals is to be supported by all involved in the process. Resources in time and money would have to be allocated.

8.4 SUGGESTIONS AS TO HOW THIS MATERIAL SHOULD BE USED

The methodology used to develop school improvement strategies for school climate (WES) or staff practices (RPTIM) was discussed in Section 4.8. The suggestions made in this Chapter are not provided as a 'fix-it quick' or complete solution. It is unlikely that they would be of use on their own in improving any school. Indeed, they were developed by the seminar groups by a process of continual discussion of the results obtained in participants' schools and clarification by the seminar groups of the issues involved. All participants considered that going through this process with staff in a school is the key to teachers accepting a change of attitude to allow school improvement.

In the author's experience, a great deal of sensitivity must be shown to teachers in any school when using these materials. Before the survey instruments are used, staff should understand what some of the outcomes expected are, why genuine responses are required, what ownership they will have, and what processes will be set up to interpret data and develop strategies for school improvement. When strategies like those listed in this chapter are planned and developed, attention must be paid to implementation and maintenance of these strategies. They should not be perceived as administrative solutions that are put in place and forgotten. Clearly if changes are to occur, attention must be focused on the people who will bring about these changes. This requires a great deal of sensitivity and negotiation with teachers about tasks and processes alike before a school embarks on a given direction.

The statements that follow in the sections on WES and RPTIM are broad comments and strategies that need to be further discussed by school staffs. It is then that specific strategies can be developed collaboratively by each school staff. What works in one school may not in another.

Because of the interrelationships of most aspects of the WES survey, positive changes in any area will most likely affect other areas in a beneficial manner. This has been discussed in Chapter 3. Suggested changes to improve both the WES and RPTIM in a school appear to overlap in philosophy and in strategies. It is likely that planned changes by a school in the 'readiness' stage of the RPTIM would change many of the factors measured in WES. Indeed, the specific

statements in the RPTIM survey may well provide a school with clearly defined starting points to improve both the school climate and staff-development practices. Again, the process is similar and a school could develop strategies for closing the gap between 'what exists' and 'what should be' in the RPTIM that may well affect the WES results.

Both the WES and RPTIM surveys provide schools with data that they can use to come to grips with the complex clusters of factors that form a school climate. It is difficult to be confident about the way all aspects of a school are functioning at any time unless some comprehensive framework is used.

In both seminar groups the WES statements were given priority and then clarified. The second group was not told that the first group had done this. In almost all sub-scales measured in WES, the top five factors were the same in both groups, indicating consensus among practitioners about the best strategies to improve these factors. This may also suggest that the strategies used to improve schools, in primary and high schools alike, may well follow a similar pattern within schools, in areas such as climate and staff-development practices. The statements and strategies shown in the following pages are not shown in order of priority, and a number have been combined since they were ranked by each member of the seminar group. The statements and strategies for the RPTIM stages resulted from brainstorming sessions only and have not been ranked, discussed or clarified.

One point made very strongly by participants of both seminars was that time must be made available to allow such processes to be carried

out in schools. Time, usually expressed in terms of relief days and technical assistance as required, must be provided if teachers are to plan in a collaborative way and not have their classroom performance suffer. As discussed in section 8.3, this is a particularly difficult task to complete in high schools where staff seldom work for long periods on matters that concern the whole school.

Following discussion at both seminars, a list of statements and strategies was developed for each section measured in the WES and RPTIM surveys. A tabulated summary of each is shown in the following pages.

8.5 STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE SCHOOL CLIMATE

TABLE 23

Involvement

The extent to which teachers are concerned and committed to their jobs.

- . Teachers are involved in appropriate decision-making in all areas in which they have a stake and/or expertise, e.g. budgeting, handbook.
- . The value of activities should be carefully explained to teachers.
- . Teachers set goals and objectives.
- . Responsibilities are delegated.
- . Staff meetings should not merely consist of the dissemination of administrative material, and should encourage involvement and decision-making by staff.
- . Teachers' strengths and interests are built on.
- . Professional-development activities should encourage togetherness, e.g. curriculum development across subject disciplines in secondary schools.

Peer cohesion

The extent to which teachers are friendly and supportive of each other:

- . Effective communication should have the personal touch, be open, frank and consistent, and show honesty. In secondary schools, communication should also occur across disciplines.
- . Each teacher's opinion is sought and valued by the senior staff team. This opinion is respected, supported, and accommodated where feasible.
- . There is a shared sense of purpose, e.g. school-based seminars and workshops (perhaps specifically aimed to raise self-esteem and peer cohesion).
- . Management strategy should encourage cohesion by arranging, for example,
 - . social functions,
 - . morning teas,
 - . regular grade or team meetings, and
 - . by teachers, senior staff and the principal working co-operatively.
- . In times of personal crisis people must be aware of the need for compassion and understanding.
- . High priority must be given to the induction process, which should include peers. There should be a mechanism and checklist to aid the process.

Staff support

The extent to which the senior staff are supportive of teachers and encourage teachers to be supportive of each other:

- . Senior staff should lead by example -
 - . participating, to give support,
 - . taking classes with difficult children, and
 - . taking classes at times to allow teachers more spare time.
- . Take a risk, be flexible in applying rules, be open-minded and consistent, show understanding and be willing to check your level of trust.
- . Have realistic expectations of staff and senior staff. Where possible, negotiate this. Clarify roles by clearly defining goals and expectations of all teachers.
- . Senior staff should be prepared to tell staff when they do not measure up, and be able to recommend improvements.
- . Opportunities for professional-development should be provided to staff at all levels (e.g. providing for senior staff to acquire or improve administrative skills).
- . Give appropriate forms of praise and recognise effort.
- . Provide adequate resources and make them readily available.
- . Be prompt in responding to teachers' needs both personally and with resources where appropriate, e.g. leave entitlements.

Autonomy

The extent to which teachers are encouraged to be self-sufficient and to make their own decisions:

- . Respect teachers' professionalism and individuality, e.g. by enforcing fewer petty rules.
- . Encourage and support teachers in the use of initiative and innovation, e.g. syllabus initiatives.
- . Share information and expertise with peers, e.g. encourage teachers to talk about what they are doing.
- . Teachers should be able to get information and support in a non-threatening way.
- . Delegate responsibility and support those to whom it is delegated.
- . Plan professional development to allow teachers to follow their own interests.

Task orientation

The extent to which the climate emphasises good planning, efficiency and encourages teachers to 'get the job done'.

- . Clarity of purpose implies good planning, preparation, evaluating, and follow up.
- . Commitment to excellence and high expectations.
- . Right job to right person is using staff expertise correctly.
- . Long- and short-term school planning and the setting of priorities.
- . Understanding of and continuing focus on school aims and objectives.
- . Good support for resources, including quality of facilities.
- . Senior staff should lead by example.
- . Teachers should be responsible for what they do.

Work pressure

The extent to which the pressure of work dominates the job milieu:

- . Mutual awareness of pressures inherent in various roles, e.g., principal, teacher, cleaner.
- . Time should be provided for study, preparation and individual reflection; e.g., spend some money in schools for this purpose.
- . Realistic expectations of teachers after school time, e.g., regarding their availability for sport, parent-teacher discussions, curriculum and professional development.

- . Realistic and fair expectations of personal goals, and realistic periods allowed for goals to be reached.
- . Principal and senior staff should generate a relaxed atmosphere (a relaxed teacher is probably most successful), e.g. by providing time out without guilt.
- . Teachers and senior staff should have a say in the roles of staff, and these should be developed by negotiation between these parties.
- . Personal planning should be encouraged, including the right to decide on the priorities given to clerical jobs. There is a need to distinguish between 'important' and 'urgent'.
- . 'Replace' rather than 'add'. Each new idea should remove something else, thereby not adding to work pressure.
- . Eliminate supervision by supplying adequate relief or combining classes.
- . Encourage external interests as a long-term strategy.

Clarity

The extent to which teachers know what to expect in their daily routines and how explicitly rules and policies are communicated:

- . Make clear lines of communication, e.g. regular newsletters, small-group meetings, staff-room calendar.
- . Ensure that new staff understand written policy and routines, e.g. the handbook.
- . Give clear definitions of roles. Staff should know what they and others are responsible for.
- . Clearly define decision-making processes.
- . Discuss procedures for unusual events, e.g. what to do when parents cannot afford to buy school shoes.
- . Jargon should be avoided.
- . Relevant Education Department regulations should be well known.
- . Teachers' industrial rights and obligations should be well known.

Staff supervision

The extent to which the school administration uses rules and pressures to supervise and control teachers:

- . Involve those with expertise and/or a stake in the outcome in the decision making process, e.g. in the formulation of school policies.
- . Vary the style of leadership so that it is appropriate to each situation.
- . Aim for self-control, self-assessment and self-monitoring of staff members.

Innovation

The extent to which variety, change, and new approaches are emphasised in the school:

- . Recognise the worth of initiatives, and extend initiative in the school.
- . The principal provides support, e.g. by providing time for teachers to talk about new ideas, or suggested changes.
- . Relevant authorities must support schools, providing, for example, resources and time.
- . Share innovations within the school and with other schools, then assess the worth of the innovations.
- . Provide adequate time for planning and implementation of new initiatives. Give time for innovations to work and to be monitored.

Physical comfort

The extent to which the physical surroundings contribute to a pleasant work environment:

- . Adequate facilities include space, equipment, heating, lighting, ventilation, toilets. Natural lighting is preferred. Pupil-teacher ratios must be reasonable.
- . The school, its classrooms, school grounds and the car park should be attractive environments.
- . Staff need to be aware of classroom management and the techniques of organisation. Classrooms should be kept in good condition. Maintenance is everyone's responsibility.
- . While buildings are a departmental responsibility, staff should have a greater input into the design of buildings and materials used.
- . Definite budgetary policy towards staff comfort, e.g. whether to provide a dishwasher, lounge chairs, clean towels.
- . Encourage personal warmth as it adds to physical comfort.

TABLE 24

8.6 STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE STAFF DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES

Readiness

Emphasise the selection and understanding of, and commitment to, new behaviours by a school staff or group of educators.

- . Obtain a positive, supportive school climate. Test it.
- . Evaluate continuously at all levels to create a positive climate.
- . Involve as many staff as possible in decision-making. Develop team spirit.
- . Identify goals, be specific. Don't try to do too many things at once because this leads to undue stress and pressure.
- . Identify one or a few salient goals, develop them collaboratively and base them on the needs of the school and teachers' personal needs so that teachers are motivated.
- . Introduce new concepts slowly, and allow plenty of time for discussion.
- . Ensure communication channels are two-way.
- . Encourage formal and informal discussion, and share information.
- . Canvass the acceptability of a program before it is started.
- . Constant staff turnover is a difficulty to be overcome.
- . Teachers need to feel comfortable, safe, and to be treated as professionals.
- . Parents should be encouraged to express a desire for improvement and change. Parents must understand reasons and problems if support is to be provided.

Planning

Planning focuses on developing specific plans for an in-service program to be implemented over three to five years and designed to achieve the desired changes or professional practices selected in Stage I.

- . Have a plan and policy for professional development. Those with a stake or expertise should be involved in developing this.
- . Professional-development needs and activities are identified collaboratively. Needs include individual, group and the entire staff of a school.
- . Identify goals and short- and long-term objectives.
- . Plan evaluation procedures.
- . There should be a flow chart and schedule for professional-development activities.
- . Use experts in school and consultants out of school.
- . Resources in time, money, people and buildings need to be identified during planning.
- . Be sure planners are aware of and use adult learning techniques. In planning, thought must be given to how people learn.
- . Involve parents where applicable.

- . Communicate final plans to those concerned.
- . The six p's: Prior Planning Prevents Pathetically Poor Performances.

Training

The plans are translated into practice. This stage responds very directly to what is known about adult learning.

- . Training needs to be work-orientated or school-based so that staff can see the benefit.
- . Look at the time available. School time should be used, where appropriate, rather than a teacher's time. This should increase motivation and decrease work pressure. In order to make time available for training, bringing ideas to fruition and re-evaluation of skills learnt, consideration could be given to restructuring the timetable or using professional-development relief days.
- . Allocate funding and other resources.
- . Encourage peer interaction, and the sharing of expertise.
- . Make use of people in schools - look to expertise rather than positions.
- . The principal must be prepared to work with staff.
- . It is important that senior staff participate in staff-development activities, not necessarily as leaders, sometimes as learners.
- . Participation should be voluntary.
- . Leaders of training must have the respect of participants.
- . School-based 'trainers' must be adequately trained.
- . Use adult learning techniques.
- . Achieve a balance between theory, philosophy and skill.
- . Use a range of ideas and methods of implementation.
- . Put greater emphasis on the skills of teaching, e.g. reading and writing.
- . Staff-development activities can be organised to include the families of staff.

Implementation

This ensures that training becomes a continuing part of the professional behaviour of teachers and administrators, and that the new knowledge and skills learned in in-service training are installed in the work setting.

- . It is important to support new behaviours by providing back-up materials of:
 - . staff,
 - . equipment, and
 - . time.

- . Make time for planning, and for making and organising resources.
- . People working in educational support services for schools must have credibility.
- . Evaluate progress consistently. Time and opportunity for reflection should be provided for individuals and groups.
- . Provide peer support, including peer supervision.
- . Communicate plans clearly to ensure full awareness of those involved.
- . Proceed at a pace staff can manage.
- . Don't be afraid to discard ideas that prove to be impractical or irrelevant.
- . Mix the best of old with the best of new.
- . Recognise and praise effort.
- . Monitor and evaluate students' reaction .
- . Achieve parental acceptance and understanding of information.

Maintenance

Maintenance begins as new behaviours are integrated into daily practice. The aim of this final stage is to ensure that once a change in performance is operational, the improved performance will continue.

- . Provide financial and personal resources to support teachers in their changes.
- . Combine adaptation and flexibility with catalysts to maintain momentum.
- . Delegate responsibilities for maintenance to people who have expertise, not necessarily senior staff.
- . An effective plan for evaluation involves the needs of school, groups of staff, and individual staff members.
- . Consultants, preferably experts, or resource people should make return visits.
- . Keep new staff members informed by clarifying school expectations and policies.
- . Maintain only those parts that work with your students.
- . Continue with the sharing of ideas, praise and encouragement. Don't be static; keep feeding in new ideas, and be prepared to admit failures.
- . Open the school to others to share successes.
- . Continue the monitoring and evaluating of staff practices to allow natural modification.
- . Continue to encourage parental support and, if possible, involvement.

8.7 CONCLUSIONS

The recent literature on school improvement was reviewed in this chapter. The writers of this literature clearly acknowledge how difficult it is to achieve school improvement, but also note many successes. Some comparative literature between the school effectiveness movement and school improvement was also reviewed. In both lines of inquiry, school climate and staff-development practices have been recognised as two vital ingredients. The review of the literature on school climate, staff-development practices and effective schools in Chapter 2, resulted in the highlighting of numerous interrelated characteristics (or content) between the concepts of school climate and staff-development practices. The school improvement literature reviewed in this chapter focuses on the strategies and dynamics (or processes) of developing an instructionally effective school.

While some concern and caution is expressed about the research conducted and findings reported in both lines of inquiry, it is interesting to note that both Purkey and Smith (when commenting on the school effectiveness literature) and Clark, Lotto and Astuto (when commenting on the school improvement literature), suggest the body of knowledge and research in these two areas does offer a practitioner's guide to action. The findings square with common sense and experience.

Furthermore, it is argued that the literature about school improvement supports and reinforces the values and beliefs put forward in the educational platform in Chapter 2.

Differences in organisation, function, expectations and purpose of primary and high school types were examined in order to find possible reasons for the differing results on the WES and RPTIM surveys. It was noted that the instructionally effective school and school improvement research was conducted mainly in primary schools, and it should not be assumed that the same results would be obtained from research in high schools.

The strategies described in Tables 23 and 24 in this chapter were based on the theory underpinning the WES and RPTIM surveys and the best practices used in our schools. Their effectiveness is supported by the research in the Tasmanian school case-studies. This research provided other evidence that schools with a good school climate have mechanisms that support professional-development practices. The evidence outlined in Chapter 7, particularly in analysis of questions in the interview schedule, and the analysis of the research findings in the conceptual framework described in Chapter 3, also verify many of the findings developed by practitioners in this chapter. The author argues that by combining both the research evidence in Chapter 3 and the suggestions of best practice outlined in this chapter, one could plan school-improvement activities based on the best of both theory (research) and practice.

The author's findings are consistent with the recommendations made by Purkey and Smith for guiding school improvement projects at the district level:

- '(1) The school is the focus of change; its culture, the ultimate policy target.

- (2) Individual school staffs should analyse their school's conditions, using the 13 effective schools characteristics (p. 358-9) as a guide.
- (3) Resources, especially time and technical assistance, must be provided that will encourage and nurture the process of collaboration and participation necessary to change both people and structures in schools.
- (4) An inverted pyramid approach to changing schools should be adopted that maximises local responsibility for school improvement while it recognises the legal responsibility of the higher governmental levels.'

(Purkey and Smith, 1985:385)

While developing the strategies for school improvement outlined in this chapter, the school experts in the predominantly 'primary' seminar came up with strategies for improvement similar to those produced in the 'secondary' seminar. The two groups worked independently of each other and yet made similar suggestions. This may give credence to Purkey and Smith's suggestion that the 13 elements of their non-prescriptive model for school improvement can be applied to primary or secondary schools. They stated that:

'Its focus is on school-specific reform and on the need for the organic growth of the 'cultural' characteristics of an effective school. It assumes that school improvement will be somewhat idiosyncratic.'

(Purkey and Smith, 1965:368)

Furthermore, Purkey and Smith argued that different schools would need to concentrate on different characteristics to find specific school solutions. Similarly, the Tasmanian research on school climate and staff-development practices suggests some strategies schools may use for each of the WES and RPTIM scales. Each school would decide from their results which areas of the school climate or staff development practices they would attempt to improve.

As suggested in Chapters 3 and 7, and again in this chapter, changes to specific WES sub-scales may well effect other WES sub-scales. Indeed one high school, when attempting to change a very low 'actual' innovation WES sub-scale reading, underwent a number of large changes including the introduction of major programs including records of achievement for students, a student enterprises program, computers across the curriculum, improving classroom learning environments. It also introduced profound management process changes using the RPTIM model for each innovative program, including the development of program budgeting, and the articulation of learning goals for all subject departments and for new programs such as those mentioned above.

This school found that within fifteen months, not only did the 'actual' innovation sub-scale move close to the 'preferred' figure, but the WES sub-scales of involvement, cohesion, staff support, autonomy, task orientation and control, all improved significantly. In short, a deliberate attempt to change one WES sub-scale changed a number of other WES sub-scales. This demonstrates the interrelated nature of these sub-scales. It also clearly highlights the interrelationship between different WES sub-scales, and between the three dimensions for conceptualising human environments described by Moos of Relationships, Personal Development and System Maintenance and System Change.

However, it cannot demonstrate a process link with the RPTIM model which was used to a large degree to introduce these changes and innovations. Perhaps the interaction and interdependency of the

characteristics in daily school life, and the processes involved, may not allow links between particular characteristics to be identified. Leadership is obviously a critical characteristic with school climate, staff development and school management processes.

This is supported by Miles when discussing 'aspects' of institutionalisation:

'- really clusters of activities and subprocesses, not well-defined variables in the usual narrow, technical sense. There are two reasons for this. First, it's clear from the literature and the cases that institutionalisation is a very complex matter, not easily untangled into narrow variables. Second, the two planning cases have indicated clearly that the interaction between variables is important; sheer lists will not suffice. Looking at a process and its results in terms of interaction of variables increases the validity of the descriptions and the conclusions. A more holistic approach also creates a good background for planning a process. ... So we refer to present "aspects" that combine variables into clusters that help us understand - and perhaps create - institutionalisation.'

(Miles et al., 1987:248)

In the same way, it is argued in this thesis that it is best to examine clusters of interacting variables that form sub-scales of school climate, or stages of the RPTIM model. Both school climate and staff development are complex matters not easily broken up into narrow variables.

It is also suggested from evidence presented in this chapter, changes in some WES sub-scales or RPTIM stages may well affect other areas identified in the same survey, and may also be interactive between areas in the two surveys. For example, changes to the staff support sub-scale in WES would most likely affect other relationship sub-scales such as peer cohesion or involvement. Alternatively, changes in the readiness stage of the RPTIM in a school may well

affect aspects of the WES scale. This interaction between clusters of variables of school climate and staff development is consistent with the literature about school improvement.

It is argued, therefore, that teachers can use assessments of their 'actual' and 'preferred' school environments and staff-development practices as a basis for discussion about school improvements. This would involve reducing the 'actual-preferred' discrepancies using school improvement strategies of the type outlined in both this chapter and Chapter 3. It can be seen that the strategies suggested by these knowledgeable and skilled practitioners overlapped most of the tried and true notions of the school improvement literature discussed in this chapter and Chapters 2 and 3.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter provides a summary of the study. The purposes of the study and the findings related to research questions are reviewed and summarised. Problems encountered in attempting to interpret the findings of the study and the implications of the research are discussed. Finally, recommendations are made for further research and a brief conclusion to the study is provided.

The first of these issues, namely a summary of the study, will be outlined in the following section.

9.1 SUMMARY

The purpose of this study has been twofold:

1. To investigate the relationship between school climate and staff-development practices in Tasmanian schools.
2. To develop approaches to improving schools using the information gained from teachers about their perceptions of school climate and staff-development practices.

The study described in the thesis is an investigation of the relationship between teachers' perceptions of their 'actual' and 'preferred' work environments (school climates) and the relationship between their perceptions of 'actual' and 'preferred' staff-

development practices. Furthermore, it describes an approach to improving school climate and staff-development practices based on teachers' 'actual' and 'preferred' perceptions of these concepts in their work setting in Tasmanian schools. The investigation has been carried out in schools in Tasmania, Australia.

Research questions about school climate, staff-development practices, and related school-improvement activities were formulated, and the findings reported throughout this thesis. The research questions are listed below and the findings summarised in Section 9.2.

1. What differences exist between actual and preferred approaches to staff development?
2. What differences exist between teachers' perceptions of actual and preferred school climates?
3. What is the relationship between approaches to staff development and the perceived climate in the school?
4. For each of Questions 1-3 above, what differences exist among schools when classified according to type, size and location?
5. What differences exist between actual and preferred staff-development practices and climates in Tasmanian schools?
6. Which policies and procedures distinguish schools according to the quality of school climate and approaches to staff development?

7. Which approaches may be adopted to enhance the quality of school climates and staff-development practices?

The first part of the study was an extensive review of the literature about school climate and staff-development practices. This was reported in Chapter 2 and established a relationship between the concepts of 'school climate' and 'staff-development practices'. The characteristics associated with these concepts were delineated and the relationships between them were discussed.

It was argued that there are 'good' or 'effective' schools that do obtain better results for students. The flaws associated with research studies in this tradition were acknowledged. However, these schools possess certain identifiable characteristics. The term 'effective' has been interpreted more broadly than it was in earlier literature about the movement for effective schooling. These 'effective' schools possess clusters of identifiable characteristics. School climate and staff-development practices are listed as two of the important concepts of effective schooling by most researchers and they include many of the characteristics associated with effective schools.

As Anderson (1982) observed, research about the school climate is a 'stepchild' of research about organisational climate and the movement for effective schooling. There are many characteristics that combine and interact with other variables to form the school climate. There are many variables constantly associated with school climate that have been related to higher attainment of students. Most researchers agree that better outcomes for students stem from the

combined characteristics of interacting variables, but there is difficulty in choosing the variables that best define school climate.

The works of the writers reviewed in Chapter 2, such as those of Purkey and Smith, and Murphy et al., have suggested conceptual frameworks or models for developing more effective schools on the basis of recent research from the movement for effective schooling, school climate and associated management theory.

Writers see staff development, broadly defined, as playing a crucial role in:

- . changes in staff attitudes and practices;
- . endeavours to change characteristics of school climate; and
- . the processes employed by a school staff to improve schools.

Many researchers state that staff development offers one of the most promising ways to improve instruction in schools. In stating this, it is recognised that teachers respond to change proposals in highly personal ways and their learning has to do with issues of collaboration, guided reflection, and the search for meaning, all of which occur over extended periods of time.

A further review of the literature about school improvement was included in Chapter 8. The strategies and processes suggested for making a school more instructionally effective overlapped with many of the findings reviewed in Chapter 2.

As noted in section 8.2, Clark, Lotto and Astuto (1984) succinctly commented that:

'The outcome variable of central interest to the school effectiveness researcher has been a measure of student achievement; for the school improvement researcher, it has been a measure of level of adoption of an innovation by a school or school system. The inquiries are, in fact, in pursuit of different questions. In the former case, the question is whether altering resources, processes and organisational arrangements will affect student outcomes. In the latter case, the issue is whether schools can change, and, if they can, how they do it. However, although investigating distinguishable questions using disparate outcome variables, these traditions of educational research have shared input and process variables. They have examined leadership, school climate, teachers, students, curriculum materials, patterns of curricular organisation, instructional tactics and strategies, financial resources, facilities and equipment, and parental and school-community involvement in education.'

(Clark, Lotto and Astuto, 1984:41-2)

Like the writers of literature about 'effective' schools, writers about school improvement constantly mention positive school climate and staff development as being two crucial elements in creating a more instructionally effective school or in school improvement activities.

While many researchers express caution over the research methodology and findings reported in the school effectiveness and school improvement literature, there appears to be a growing consensus that these two lines of inquiry should be of assistance to practitioners. The following comments reinforce this view.

On effective schools research:

'... the existing research is consistent to guide school improvement efforts based on its conclusions.'

(Purkey and Smith, 1985:355)

'... the findings of the effective schools research square with common sense and with experience of practitioners.'

(Purkey and Smith, 1985:355-6)

On school improvement research:

'a rhetoric of reforms . . . a set of normative principles.'
(Ralph and Fennessey, 1983:693)

'the total package of description and findings offers a practitioner's guide to action that exceeds substantially the accumulated experience of the individual . . . there is much to be learned and examined in these literatures that will illuminate options for effective practice.'
(Clark, Lotto and Astuto, 1984:64)

The review of the literature about school improvement dealt more with the processes and the strategies schools could use to become more effective than with the characteristics associated with effective schools. It can be inferred from Chapter 2 that the literature about the movement for school effectiveness overlaps with the literature about the movement for school improvement.

Writers of the literature reviewed in this study generally saw a close relationship between:

- . a positive school climate;
- . provision of staff development; and
- . strategies for school improvement.

The findings of the literature described in Chapters 2 and 8 were supported by the results of the research reported in An Evaluation of Professional Development Practices In Tasmanian Schools 1983-85. The final chapter including the recommendations from the report is included in Appendix 3 of this thesis.

Furthermore, through an examination of numerous research studies, many characteristics of school climates and staff-development

practices were identified. There was discussion of research about how human environments could be conceptualised, and how school environments could be measured. In addition, strategies and processes for constructing a positive school climate were examined. On the basis that a good school climate is necessary if positive changes in schools are to occur, and that these characteristics, and the processes and strategies to assist school improvement are well documented, the author argued that it must be possible to construct a positive and enduring school climate. Methods and strategies to assist this are described in Chapters 3 and 8 of this thesis and form the second purpose of this study.

In the hypothesised theory to account for the relationship between school climate and staff-development practices in Chapter 2, it was argued that a large number of the characteristics of these concepts were crucial elements in creating a 'good' or 'effective' school. Developing such a school would involve obtaining a positive climate, using the knowledge about change processes and imbedding good staff-development practices into school routines. No doubt these characteristics and processes are interwoven in the complex daily life of a school. However, to motivate and to develop teachers in a school and to continually strive for excellence in all school endeavours, requires acknowledgement of and attention to the interacting nature of these characteristics and processes.

Chapter 3 outlines, in tabulated form, the characteristics of school climate and staff-development practices mentioned in the research on school effectiveness and school improvement. A conceptual

approach to the research for improving school climate and staff-development practices was developed. First, the characteristics of effective schools, leadership and school climate, were analysed and tabulated according to the rubric suggested by Moos for conceptualising human environments. Second, the dynamics and strategies suggested in the literature related to staff development and school improvement were treated in a similar manner. The second section was analysed and tabulated under the rubric suggested by Wood et al. (1982) in their RPTIM model of staff-development practices.

While it is impossible to delineate clearly all the characteristics described in the literature according to Moos's rubric, the author adopted the argument put forward by Murphy et al., and Miles et al., that these factors can be viewed as sets of characteristics, or clusters of variables interrelated in reality. These clusters of interacting characteristics can be used to describe school climate. The tables in Chapter 3, developed from the characteristics mentioned in the literature reviews, do, however, show a close relationship between the general areas or sub-scales developed by Moos to describe the work environment and the characteristics listed by researchers describing school climate, staff-development practices, leadership, effective schools, and successful strategies for school improvement. Researchers have consistently described similar clusters of characteristics when describing aspects of school climate. Moos's Work Environment Scale provides a measure of many of these characteristics of a school climate.

The research reviewed in the areas of staff-development practices and school improvement, as shown in Chapters 2 and 8 and Appendix 3, is extensive. These reviews concentrated mainly upon the processes and strategies whereby schools may become more effective. Staff-development activities play a crucial part in any school improvement plan. The literature reviewed in Chapters 2 and 8 and Appendix 3 was analysed and categorised according to the RPTIM model in Chapter 3. Most statements reviewed in the literature were easily incorporated into one of the five stages of the RPTIM model. This analysis, tabulated in Chapter 3, confirms the research-based, comprehensive and systematic nature of the RPTIM model.

As a result of this analysis, it is argued that both models are conceptually based upon research and provide approaches for studying and describing school climate and staff-development practices respectively. Furthermore, it is argued that many of the characteristics and strategies for improving schools are consistent with either of these models. The overlapping and interactive characteristics of some of the variables of school climate and staff-development practices was noted.

In Chapter 3, many characteristics of school climate were defined. The author argues that as sets of characteristics form the concept of school climate, and most characteristics can be changed, it is therefore possible for educators to construct a positive, enduring school climate. Moos's conceptualisation of the Relationships, Personal, Systems Maintenance and Systems Change dimensions appears to be a most worthwhile framework to consider. In Chapter 3, it was also

argued that conceptual research approaches aimed at improving school climate (WES) and staff-development practices (RPTIM) cover most of the characteristics identified in the current research in the areas of effective schools, school climate, leadership, staff-development practices and school improvement. These two instruments were used in an empirical research study to establish whether there is a relationship between school climate and staff-development practices. The instruments were administered to teachers in schools during case studies examining professional-development practices in 33 Tasmanian schools.

Chapter 4 provided an outline of the methodology used for gathering information for questions of research 1 to 7, addressed in this study. This involved stating the criteria on which a representative sample of Tasmanian schools were selected and a justification of the case study approach to examining professional-development practices in a school setting. Furthermore, the method of data collection and an assessment of reliability and validity of the information gathered during the case studies was provided. The interview schedule and methodology used in all case studies were reviewed. Data from some case studies was included in Chapter 7, to explore the nature of the relationship between school climate and professional-development practices.

Furthermore, the method by which the WES and RPTIM surveys were administered in the context of these case studies was discussed. These instruments were described and validation data reported. Noteworthy features of the WES instrument from the results reported in Chapter 5,

include its adequate coverage of Moos's three dimensions for conceptualising all human environments, its validity for use in schools, and its economy, in that teachers take only ten to fifteen minutes to respond to all ten scales. Administration of WES to samples of teachers has attested to each scale's internal consistency and discriminant validity in either its 'actual' or 'preferred' forms and with either the individual teacher or the school mean as the unit of analysis. Also the 'actual' form of each scale was found to differentiate between the perceptions of teachers in different schools.

Noteworthy features of the RPTIM instrument, reported in Chapter 6, include teachers' agreement with the ten beliefs or assumptions on which the RPTIM model was constructed, the perceived adequate coverage of staff-development practices, its face validity for use in schools, and its economy, in that teachers take approximately ten to fifteen minutes to respond to the survey. Administration of the RPTIM survey to 380 teachers has attested to each scale's internal consistency and discriminant validity in either its 'actual' or 'preferred' forms and with either individual teacher or the school mean as the unit of analysis.

From the data reviewed it was concluded that both instruments possess face validity and are useful instruments for measuring school climates and staff-development practices, respectively. The results obtained and the relationship between school climate and staff-development practices are reviewed in the next section.

The second purpose of the study was to gather information about research question 7, which was discussed in Chapter 8. The comparison of the literature related to school effectiveness and school improvement has been previously discussed. Many Tasmanian schools are now using the processes discussed and the strategies developed by practitioners and listed in Tables 23 and 24, Chapter 8.

The strategies in both tables were developed by 'expert' school practitioners to enhance school climate and staff-development practices. They were developed as an intended outcome for the research, following reflection on salient results reported in Chapters 5 to 7 of this study. The strategies described in these tables were based on the theory underpinning the WES and RPTIM surveys and the best of practices used in our schools. The methodology of selection of the 'expert' practitioners involved, and the methodology used to develop the strategies were described in Chapter 4.

9.2 THE FINDINGS

9.2.1 What differences exist between teachers' perceptions of actual and preferred school climates?

In Chapter 5, it was reported that when profiles of means of the WES scale were sketched for the various school types, a high degree of consistency was found between different school types for environment sub-scales of the 'preferred' form. This was also consistent for schools within each school type. Thus the analysed data demonstrated that there

is agreement among teachers about 'preferred' environments, regardless of school, school type, size or location. This consistency of perception provides a benchmark for comparison between 'actual' and 'preferred' work environments.

In contrast, teachers' perceptions of their 'actual' school environments varied markedly with school type. In particular, appreciable differences were apparent between primary schools and high schools in terms of actual school environments. Primary schools were found to have a more favourable school environment than high schools on all nine sub-scales where significant differences emerged. This was especially the case in terms of clarity of school rules, amount of innovation, physical surroundings, and work pressure.

From the evidence provided in Chapter 5, it would appear that teachers working in different school types in Tasmania have similar perceptions about the characteristics, described in Moos's sub-scales, of their 'preferred' work environment, but the perceptions of teachers in different school types differ for the 'actual' work environment. These different perceptions of the 'actual' environments did not relate to the variables of school size or location (country or urban), but to school types.

9.22 What differences exist between 'actual' and 'preferred' approaches to staff development?

An examination of the 'what should be' or 'actual' RPTIM results indicated little difference between teachers' perceptions when analysed

according to school type. Teachers also had consistent perceptions of 'what should be' or 'preferred' for schools within each school type. That is, teachers in all schools, regardless of school type, size or location, had similar perceptions of what should exist in each of the 38 staff-development practices. This relatively common perception of what teachers regard as the ideal is further illustrated in the 10 basic beliefs on which the RPTIM model is based. These results showed an amazing consistency, regardless of school type, in all nine beliefs where similar perceptions may have been expected.

Considerable variation, however, occurred between school types in the 'actual' form of the RPTIM instrument. Thus the perceptions of teachers in different types of schools showed that some types of schools have better staff-development practices than others. The most favourable staff-development practices were reported in primary schools for 36 of the 38 practices (when analysed for five types: primary schools, high schools, K-10 schools, secondary colleges and independent schools). Using Wood et al.'s definition of a 'neglected practice', only two such practices were identified in the responses from primary school teachers. On the other hand, 16 neglected practices were identified through analysis of results for high schools and 19 for secondary colleges.

Analysis of the 'actual' responses to the RPTIM items demonstrated considerable variation between schools in each school type, indicating more schools have 'better' staff-development practices than others. Further analysis of the data did not reveal any relationship between schools with 'better' staff-development practices and the variables school size, location or whether they were Government or independent.

When data were analysed for individual schools, teachers again had similar perceptions of 'preferred' staff-development practices. These similarities in perceptions occurred for teachers in all schools. Thus teachers in all school types and schools within each type preferred similar 'what should be' staff-development practices. It is argued that the similarities of these results provide schools with a benchmark for comparison between 'actual' and 'preferred' as all teachers have similar perceptions of 'preferred'.

When the 'actual' results are examined for individual schools in each school type, considerable variation occurs. Considering that teachers generally agreed on 'preferred' it is argued that schools could develop strategies for improvement by attempting to close the gap between 'actual' and 'preferred' in specific staff-development practices or RPTIM model stages. In the case studies in schools that were part of the Tasmanian evaluation of professional-development practices, most schools used the assessments of their teachers' perceptions of actual and preferred staff-development practices as a basis for discussion of improvements in their schools.

As indicated in Chapter 4, in Tasmania, slightly different validation methods and statistics were used as compared with the United States. Furthermore, the American and Tasmanian samples shown in Chapter 4 were different in that the American sample consisted of people who were not working in schools but possessed expertise in professional-development practices, while the Tasmanian sample consisted of teachers working in schools. The Tasmanian results were similar to those gained in the United States, and the Tasmanian 'preferred' results were very consistent. From

research based in America and Australia, the practices, listed according to the rubric of the RPTIM Model in Chapter 3, were consistent and similar to those listed in the RPTIM model by Thompson. It is suggested, therefore, that more research needs to be undertaken with similar cross-cultural samples in both the United States and Australia to determine whether cultural differences may inhibit the use of the RPTIM instrument. There has been sufficient evidence provided in this thesis to be able to apply the results obtained in Tasmania to other Australian States with a reasonable degree of confidence.

9.2.3 What is the relationship between approaches to staff development and the perceived climate in the school?

Although caution needs to be applied in interpreting and comparing the results of these two instruments, it is argued in this thesis that both are suitable for use with a reasonable degree of confidence in Australian schools.

Teachers in different school types and different schools in the representative sample of Tasmanian schools have similar perceptions of 'preferred' work environments and 'preferred' staff-development practices. Teachers in Tasmanian schools, however, have different perceptions of the 'actual' work environment and of the 'actual' staff-development practices. Primary school teachers perceive that they work in a better 'actual' work environment and have better 'actual' staff-development practices. Also, teachers in certain schools within a school type perceive that they have better 'actual' work environments and better 'actual' staff-development practices, than teachers in other schools within each school-type.

Furthermore, it is argued that teachers in schools can use both the WES and RPTIM instruments as a basis of discussion to reduce the 'actual' and 'preferred' discrepancy within their schools. In this manner, it is suggested that both surveys can be used as diagnostic instruments to assist schools to improve their work environment and staff-development practices. Both instruments provide 'starting points' for teachers in schools to reflect on their own situations and improve their school climates and staff-development practices.

In Chapter 7 the author examines the relationship between the school climate and professional-development practices. The relationship is shown using data gained in the administration of the two instruments and from additional evidence from case studies in selected schools. The results were analysed by type of school and then by individual schools. A method of determining 'good' school climates was determined and then the results of questions about 'actual' WES and 'actual' RPTIM for individual schools were compared. Schools with 'good' school climates always recorded a higher proportion of RPTIM 'preferred' results - above the mean for that school type for each of the RPTIM questions. A strong relationship was depicted between WES and RPTIM scores. When WES scores were high so were RPTIM scores and vice versa. That is, where school climate was perceived to be good by staff, so were staff-development practices. It was argued, therefore, that schools with 'good' climates have 'better' staff-development practices taking place. This analysis also indicated that within each type of school there was a range of climates and staff-development practices. It is therefore suggested that there is a strong relationship between positive school climates and positive staff-development practices in particular schools within certain types of

schools. This relationship was further enhanced by a detailed examination of the case studies on professional development as outlined in Chapter 7.

Schools, whether primary, secondary, district-high or secondary colleges, that recorded good actual WES and RPTIM results show more positive staff responses to questions about professional development. These schools usually had a whole-school philosophy and a policy or established procedures for staff development. This finding certainly suggests that the characteristics identified in the concepts of school climate and staff-development practices are interrelated, as suggested from the literature review and in subsequent studies.

An analysis of some of the responses from the four schools described in this chapter, provided contrasts in teachers' perceptions of established procedures, programs and policies (written or unwritten). Discussion involved analysis of procedures in such areas as:

- . attendance at and communication about professional-development activities;
- . support provided from administrators and teaching peers;
- . provision of resources such as office staff or teacher aide time for typing and photocopying;
- . the involvement of staff in the planning of school-based activities;
- . follow-up activities and provision of resources to support teachers implementing ideas;
- . parental and community involvement;
- . provision of classroom resources;
- . providing child/student-focused professional-development activities;
- . adequate professional library facilities; and
- . the involvement of the principal in staff-development activities.

The case studies chosen were representative of schools with high and low WES and RPTIM scores. Responses from teachers in schools scoring high

WES and RPTIM scores usually tended to be positive and indicated definite policies and procedures encouraging staff to take part in professional-development activities. Response from, or involvement of parents in these activities was generally positive. Usually teachers in these 'good' schools perceived professional-development activities to be child/student-centred. These results add credence to the findings reported by Joyce, Bush and McKibbin (1982) that schools can be classified according to their effect on the professional development of the individuals that work within them.

Again, the case studies supported those general findings of the WES and RPTIM instruments that suggested a relationship exists between many characteristics of school climate and staff-development practices. Moos stated that three major dimensions need to be used in conceptualising psycho-social environments. He acknowledged a relationship between each of the three major WES dimensions of Relationships, Personal Development and System Maintenance and Systems Change. The evidence presented in these investigations reinforced relationship between the sub-scales of each dimension and of the sub-scales between dimensions.

One high school, when attempting to change a very low 'actual' innovation sub-scale reading, implemented many new programs aimed at improving students' learning. Results obtained fifteen months later indicated a much improved innovation 'actual' sub-scale reading - very close to what the teachers 'preferred'. Predicted positive changes also occurred to other WES sub-scales in involvement, cohesion, staff support, autonomy, task orientation and control. It also resulted in a negative change of increased 'actual' work pressure. Many schools found similar

predictable results occurred when planning specific improvements based on these instruments.

If these school improvements are properly planned and executed, teachers and administrators could use exemplary staff-development practices, processes and strategies identified by researchers studying successful innovations at the workplace. It is difficult to isolate particular elements of staff development as the process involved would more than likely cover most stages in the RPTIM model. As a result it is particularly difficult to show relationships between individual characteristics of staff-development practices and characteristics of school climate. Researchers in school climate talked about interacting clusters of variables. Miles et al. quoted in Chapter 8 also argued strongly that we should describe 'aspects' that combine variables into clusters so that we can better understand the holistic approach to change.

The author believes that this relationship is interactive, and that changes to either school climate or staff-development practices are likely to affect one another. Furthermore, it would be difficult to change one and ignore the other. What is suggested in this thesis is that change is a process and it involves motivating the people at the workplace to improve their school environments. Likewise, staff development is a process that caters for the individual needs and learning styles of the participants. A program which treats staff as a uniform whole is unlikely to be effective. In addition, attention must be paid to the critical staff-development practices highlighted in Chapter 2. The WES and RPTIM models can be used successfully as part of the management theory to motivate staff to improve schools and make them more effective.

9.2.4 What differences exist among schools when classified according to type, size or location?

As reported in this section, teachers in all schools had an amazing consistency of results on the 'preferred' form of WES survey and the 'preferred' form of the RPTIM survey. No significant differences were found between teachers' perceptions when analysed according to school type, size or location (country or urban).

However, significant differences in teachers' perceptions were found on the 'actual' form of the WES survey and the 'actual' form of the RPTIM survey when data were analysed according to school type. The possible reasons for this difference were reviewed in Chapter 8. Again no statistically significant results were obtained when data were analysed according to school size or location.

The school case study data reinforced this view as schools in which teachers perceived there was a positive school environment and 'good' staff-development practices were in all school types, both small and large schools, country and urban locations and in traditional and open-plan schools. There tended to be more such schools in the primary school type.

Caution is expressed in generalising the findings for this research question about variables of size and location. Tasmanian schools, as mentioned in Chapter 4, are generally smaller than their counterparts in other Australian states or overseas. In addition, there are few areas of extreme isolation in Tasmania. Teachers are generally less than three

hours by car from an urban centre. It may be for reasons of comfortable school size or few truly isolated areas that differences in school size and location were not major factors in this study in Tasmania.

9.2.5 What differences exist between actual and preferred staff-development practices and climates in Tasmanian schools?

As described in Chapter 7, schools that scored well in the RPTIM survey, were invariably characterised by many of the following indicators.

- . a good school climate (as measured by WES);
- . high levels of staff involvement in professional-development activities;
- . an established policy, procedures and a program to encourage and support staff-development in that school;
- . provision of support in the form of typing, photocopying, time off class, encouragement and materials to try new approaches, and a good professional library;
- . staff-development activities involving all school staff over a weekend or for extended periods after school;
- . a high level of professional debate among staff;
- . collegial and supportive relationships between teachers and senior staff;
- . meaningful parental and community involvement in professional-development activities;
- . encouragement of teachers' personal development;
- . a good information flow about professional-development activities among staff;
- . the principal being involved in these activities as leader;
- . evidence of collaborative (committee) decision-making procedures;
- . focus of professional-development activities on considerations to improve student learning; and
- . allocation of resources to support activities to bring about change.

Teachers in these schools reported that the principal was supportive and staff practices were conducive to staff development. Relationships of trust and mutual support were emphasised most positively. The same could not be said of responses from schools that scored low in both surveys. All schools that scored well in both WES

and RPTIM surveys would, no doubt, be regarded by senior administrators in Tasmania as exemplary schools of their type.

As described in Chapters 2, 3 and 8, previous research has revealed evidence that a good school climate is a prerequisite to any meaningful improvement of schools. The Tasmanian survey results add evidence of this suggestion.

Teachers want the ideal or 'preferred' characteristics identified in these surveys. The schools that have 'better' staff-development practices have a 'better' climate and the teachers responses on interview questions in these schools were generally more positive. However, on the basis of the results in this study, teachers in only a few schools in most school types have approached their 'preferred' environments and 'preferred' staff-development practices. Much work still needs to be done.

9.2.6 Which policies and procedures distinguish schools according to the quality of school climate and approaches to staff development?

The Tasmanian school case studies on professional development offered many insights into the type of policies, procedures and programs that schools with 'good' staff-development practices and a positive school climate possess. Usually these schools had a written policy of staff development, although in smaller schools it was often unwritten. Schools with 'poorer' school climates and staff-development

practices appeared to be 'hit and miss' with their procedures for staff development. As a result, teachers perceived the school to have no aims or definite policy in these areas. These teachers were generally negative in their responses to interview questions. On the other hand, teachers in schools with 'good' climate and staff-development practices were extremely positive in answers to questions from the interview schedule. These teachers reported that schools with a good school climate have mechanisms that support professional-development practices. The contrast in perceptions of teachers was captured in the four case studies discussed in Chapter 7.

Many of the procedures reported in the better schools have been discussed in 9.2.3 and 9.2.5. These were aimed at encouraging and supporting teachers in staff-development activities. Resources, both human and financial, were provided to support the program. Usually a committee of staff members collaboratively planned school activities and were empowered to make the decisions on staff-development issues. Programs were usually planned over a period of time (often over 12 months) to take account of teachers' personal and professional needs, and of school priorities. It was generally accepted that teachers exhibit different growth states and different appetites for learning; thus they differ in their availability for learning. A school staff-development program must take this into account.

In addition, the principal was perceived to be supportive and was usually a leader or a participant in staff-development activities. Teachers stressed relationships of trust and mutual support, and openness in discussion about professional-development issues. School

size did not appear to be a major factor in professional development procedures or in the development of a program, although it is tentatively suggested, on the evidence gained from Tasmanian case studies, that an open-plan structure in high schools and secondary colleges may facilitate development of a school climate and better staff-development practices because of the 'forced' interaction of staff and the type of decision-making processes usually developed.

It is argued from all the evidence examined in this study in Tasmanian schools that school climate is related to staff-development practices. More research needs to be undertaken in a variety of school settings and in other states in Australia, or in other countries, to confirm these findings.

9.2.7 Which approaches may be adopted to enhance the quality of school climates and staff-development practices?

Following the reported relationship between school climate and staff-development practices suggested in Chapter 7, it appears that positive changes to factors in the school climate are most likely to change staff-development practices and vice versa. That is, an interactive relationship exists between school climate and staff-development practices. If one is improved, it is likely to improve aspects of the other. This overlapping and interactive relationship between characteristics identified in the school climate and staff-development practices was also noted when developing the conceptual framework for this study in Chapter 3 and also in Chapter 8.

School improvement activities aimed at improving students' learning must include aspects of the school climate and staff-development practices in its design. The WES and RPTIM instruments offer teachers in schools the opportunity to assess characteristics of these two concepts in a systematic manner. Much thought, discussion and action are needed if schools are to improve these areas of school climate and staff-development practices identified in both the literatures related to school effectiveness and school improvement. The comprehensive coverage of the WES and RPTIM instruments does provide an initial framework and starting point for discussion and action.

As outlined in the literature review in Chapter 8, most writers acknowledge the difficulty of school improvement activities. In Chapter 8, the writer concentrated on strategies and processes for changing school climate and staff-development practices, two of the critical ingredients necessary to improve schools.

It was suggested in Chapter 5, Chapter 6 and Chapter 7 that teachers in schools could use assessments of their 'actual' and 'preferred' school environments and staff-development practices as a basis for discussion about school improvement. This would involve reducing discrepancies between actual and preferred perceptions. In addition, normative data is available in Tasmania to allow comparison between a school and the mean of that school type. This process allows staff to reflect on data gathered in their school and plan action using this information. When teachers in some Tasmanian schools started to develop strategies in this process, it was evident that initially most required some assistance.

In Chapter 8, the author described the strategies developed by experienced practitioners to guide school improvement as indicated by each of the sub-scales of WES and by the stages of the RPTIM model. These strategies were based on the theory underpinning the WES and RPTIM surveys and on the best practices used in our schools. The strategies were supported by the research findings in the case studies in Tasmanian schools, especially from the evidence gained about mechanisms for support of professional-development practices in schools identified as possessing a 'good' school climate.

The strategies developed by practitioners in Tables 23 and 24 and processes outlined were also supported by the comments of researchers studying the effective school's movement (described in Chapter 2), and by suggestions for change from researchers in the school improvement movement (discussed in Chapter 8). Most strategies listed were identified and tabulated according to the stages of the RPTIM model in Chapter 3.

It was argued that the guidelines suggested in Chapter 8 should not be considered as an administrative, 'fix-it-quick' technique or a complete solution to improving aspects of the school climate. The process of a school staff developing their own strategies is considered of utmost importance if ownership and commitment to change by that school staff is to be achieved. The suggestions made in Chapter 8 are listed as guidelines only. Numerous schools in Tasmania are currently working on strategies similar to those listed in Chapter 8, in order to improve their school climate.

A combination of the findings of practitioners for improving aspects of the school climate and staff-development practices with those developed by researchers would provide a good coverage of the important characteristics suggested by both practitioners and researchers for both the WES and RPTIM surveys. There is already a great deal of overlap between suggestions made by the two groups of educators. On this basis, one could plan school improvement activities based on the best of both theoretical research and practice. From the evidence gathered in the Tasmanian evaluation, practitioners in primary and secondary schools could use similar strategies and processes for school improvement, a finding also supported by the work of Purkey and Smith (1985). However, the emphasis and manner in which such school improvement is undertaken may vary because of the differences between the two types of schools (discussed by the author in Chapter 8).

Also, it was suggested by practitioners and established in later investigations that changes to some of the WES sub-scales may well affect other areas in the same scale. Alternatively, changes to some of the WES sub-scales may cause changes in some of the RPTIM stages and vice versa. This type of change between characteristics of the school climate and characteristics of staff-development practices was often mentioned in the literature review. This is why many researchers talk of interacting clusters of characteristics affecting both school climate and staff-development practices.

It is argued, therefore, that teachers can use assessments of their 'actual' and 'preferred' school environments and staff-

development practices as a basis for discussion about school improvements. This would involve reducing the discrepancies between perceptions of 'actual' and 'preferred' circumstances by using school improvement strategies of the types outlined in Chapter 3 and Chapter 8.

From the approaches considered or used for measuring perceptions of school climate in Tasmanian schools during the period of the studies described in this thesis, the following combination of suggestions would be helpful to schools considering how to measure and improve their school climate.

- (1) Teachers in a school should prepare for the use of the WES and know the limitations of the instrument.
- (2) Teachers should be made aware of the importance given to characteristics of school climate by researchers in the school effectiveness and school improvement literature.
- (3) The method of administration of the WES and use of the results should be negotiated with teachers before using the instrument.
- (4) Teachers should be aware that the school data can be compared against normative data for that school type.
- (5) Teachers can develop strategies to close the gap between school mean results for 'actual' and 'preferred' on WES sub-scales.
- (6) When developing these strategies, teachers may consider those developed from findings of researchers (Chapters 3 and 8) and by practitioners (Chapter 8). Each school would probably develop strategies unique to its situation.
- (7) The progress of school improvement efforts may be monitored by repeated use of the WES each 12 months or more.

9.3 DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

9.3.1 Uses of the WES instrument

WES is an instrument that can be used by teachers and education researchers to measure and describe school environments. Their assessments could form the basis of studies of the effects of the school environment on such things as teachers' job satisfaction or students' achievement or morale. Also, links between school and classroom environment might be investigated (see Fraser and Rentoul, 1982). Furthermore, teachers might use assessments of their perceptions of actual and preferred school environment as a basis for discussion of improvements in their school environments, to reduce actual-preferred discrepancies (see Moos, 1981; Fraser, 1981(b); Fraser and Fisher, 1986).

One interesting question that has been explored with the available WES data is that of differences between school types. When profiles of WES sub-scale means were sketched for the various school types (see Figure 5), reasonable similarity was found for preferred environment scales. That is, there was a fair degree of agreement among teachers in different types of schools as to what they would prefer their school environments to be like. In contrast, teachers' perceptions of their actual school environments varied markedly with school type (see Figure 7). In particular, some appreciable differences were apparent between primary schools and high schools (see Figures 9 and 10) in terms of actual school environment. Figure 12 illustrates these differences between the profiles of mean 'actual' environment scores for Government primary schools and Government high schools.

Again, Figure 12 graphically demonstrates that primary school teachers perceived a more favourable school environment than high school teachers on all nine sub-scales for which significant differences emerged. (Note: the work pressure scale is a negative scale in that teachers prefer less work pressure). That is, relative to high school teachers, primary school teachers perceived their schools as having greater involvement, peer cohesion, staff support, autonomy, task orientation, clarity, innovation, and physical comfort and less work pressure. These differences appear greatest in what Moos refers to as system maintenance and system change dimensions. In comparison with primary teachers, high school teachers perceived the school environment as being characterised by more work pressure, less clarity regarding school rules and policies, less innovation, and worse physical surroundings. While caution is needed when generalising about the results for this particular sample of schools, the findings suggest the desirability of future work along these lines.

In accounting for poorer teacher perceptions of the 'actual' work environment in high schools, the following factors may be critical

- . the size and complexity of high schools;
- . a bigger physical plant with lack of classroom ownership;
- . teachers usually having 150 to 200 student contacts;
- . teachers being packaged into subject disciplines and delivering a subject-orientated curriculum;
- . more complex requirements placed on teachers and the consequent lack of teacher time;
- . lack of common vision and shared school goals;
- . little parental involvement;
- . difficulty in obtaining co-operation of all staff on school procedures;
- . teachers feeling isolated and perceiving lack of support;
- . little innovation as high schools are being held accountable for the end product;
- . more complex systems of student evaluation and of reporting to parents;

- . greater possibility for staff to split into factional or pressure groups, thus reducing staff cohesiveness;
- . a diverse leadership team usually considering interests of their own subject departments first;
- . more complex pastoral care requirements of adolescents;
- . student subject choice and diversity of the secondary curriculum;
- . students being less motivated and more disruptive during adolescence; and
- . little student involvement in school decisions and policy.

However, it must be remembered that poorer 'actual' WES results were not found in all high schools. One smaller (380 students) 'open plan' high school and one larger (750 students) 'traditional' high school scored very positive WES results. Both these schools had established links with the community, had developed a number of school improvement innovations and were perceived by staff to have good dynamic principals.

Stewart (1979) suggested that, by attempting to regulate the school environment, it is possible for educators to improve the learning and social development of students. It is argued here that regulation of the school environment could be facilitated by using such instruments as WES to measure and describe environments.

9.3.2 Uses of the RPTIM instrument

Results of the survey based on the RPTIM model generally suggest that in Tasmanian schools it is necessary to concentrate more effort on the following practices.

Making schools READY for staff development through:

- . the development of a positive school climate before the pursuit of other staff-development activities;
- . the collaborative writing of goals for school improvement;
- . developing written lists of goals for school improvement covering longer time spans;
- . an examination of current school practices to determine their congruence with the school's goals for improvement before staff-development activities are planned;
- . an examination of current educational practices not yet found in the school to see which ones are congruent with the school's goals for improvement; and
- . the identification by the school staff of specific plans to achieve the school's goals for improvement.

In the area of PLANNING much more attention needs to be paid to:

- . an examination of the differences between desired and actual practices in the school to identify the in-service needs of the staff;
- . the use of information on the learning styles of participants when planning staff development activities;
- . the inclusion in staff development programs of plans for activities to be conducted over a number of years; and
- . the writing of specific objectives for staff development activities.

When expecting teachers to IMPLEMENT knowledge and skills learned in their in-service training, the study suggests a need to:

- . provide ready access to support services to help teachers integrate these new behaviours into their normal work behaviour;
- . recognise the efforts of staff members who attempt to implement new learning;
- . have the leaders of staff development activities visit the school/classroom to help teachers refine or review previous learning; and
- . allocate resources to support the implementation of new practices following staff-development activities.

When attempting to improve the ongoing MAINTENANCE of new practices it is necessary to use systematic programs of instructional

supervision to monitor new work behaviour.

The RPTIM model appears to be a valuable diagnostic instrument to assess a school's strengths and weaknesses according to the 38 practices. It provides a framework that addresses the problems and recommends guidelines for, and characteristics of, effective in-service programs.

Obviously much needs to be done in schools to increase the effectiveness and efficiency of staff-development programs, and to expect these things to occur in a very short time would not be realistic.

However, the model highlights the essential problem of creating a good working climate within the school before staff-development activities can successfully occur and this leads to an interesting comparison of results obtained using the WES and the RPTIM which was investigated in Chapter 7.

It appears from this study that there is a need for continuing discussion with and among principals and senior staff in schools and experts in professional development services external to schools of such things as the RPTIM model and what constitutes an effective staff-development program. Staff-development programs for these people are also desirable and should assist to provide them with the skills necessary to play an effective role in supporting professional development.

As with the WES instrument, it would appear that a school staff could now use the RPTIM survey as a diagnostic tool. Results from a

particular school could be compared with the means from a sample of schools of similar type. Also within a school the 'actual' and 'perceived' staff-development practices could be compared. This would allow quick feedback about the school setting and a comparison with other schools and with what teachers view as their local idea. Such information should aid in facilitating and evaluating staff-development practices and school improvement activities within a school. It may also help the systematic assessment of staff-development practices and help with planning and instituting specific changes at school or system level and for re-assessment following further evaluation.

An interesting question that has been explored with the RPTIM data is the difference between school type on the 'what is' form of the survey in which primary schools were found to have more favourable staff-development practices than high schools in all five stages of the RPTIM model. Many staff in high schools believe that their professional development should be almost entirely linked to their teaching and subject area. As a result it would appear more difficult to promote a school-wide program of staff development and motivate staff interest in it. Many staff factions and interested staff groups have specific interests and pursue these at all costs. Establishment of a school mission, learning goals and a program for staff development is therefore more difficult to obtain in a larger high school, for reasons previously mentioned (Section 8.3.1), than in a primary school. Perhaps talented leadership is necessary to establish such a schoolwide focus.

In addition, external pressures imposed by the school system may assist in creating a need for a planned school staff-development program. Schools could be asked to provide a staff-development program linked to say a three year school improvement plan. Alternatively, perhaps most staff-development programs at high schools should occur through subject departments and be based on a model such as the RPTIM, taking cognizance of Showers, Joyce and Bennett's comments on process and the number of times a teaching skill needs to be practised before it is transferred into a teacher's classroom practice.

9.3.3 Relationship between school climate and staff-development practices in Tasmanian schools

In the analysis of the literature review in Chapter 3, it was concluded that the WES and RPTIM surveys do provide conceptually based frameworks, related to research findings, suitable for measuring school climate and staff-development practices respectively. It is also evident from the validation studies of these instruments discussed in Chapter 4, and from the results obtained in both the United States and Tasmania discussed in Chapters 5 and 6, that both instruments are suitable for use in Australian schools. That is, no evidence of cultural differences were found, that could inhibit the use of these American instruments in Australian schools.

Furthermore, it is concluded that the general results obtained from their use in the United States and Tasmania were similar. However the WES results in the United States were collected from a variety of

work milieux and not from schools. The RPTIM results in the United States were collected from an educational context wider than schools. The results of both surveys could not, therefore, be specifically compared with their use in Tasmania where the school was the unit of analysis. It is not as yet possible to compare the Tasmanian results of school means and school types with corresponding data from the United States.

The review of the literature in Chapter 2 indicates that both school climate and staff-development are important variables in 'good' or 'effective' schools. Research was reviewed that established links between many of the characteristics of school climate and staff-development practices and better student learning. It is argued, therefore, by implication that such schools will provide better teaching to students. That is, schools that have a positive school climate and better staff-development practices are more likely to be 'good' or 'effective' schools.

It is suggested that a most appropriate follow up study would be to see whether the schools identified in this investigation as high on WES and RPTIM scores, were in fact 'effective' schools and the schools that scored low in those two respects were 'ineffective', that is as defined by student test scores being above or below the norm. This may link the concepts of school climate and staff-development practices with the concept of school effectiveness. In doing so, potential researchers must be aware of the numerous flaws in the literature about school effectiveness.

This analysis has shown that both the WES and RPTIM surveys are valuable diagnostic and prognostic instruments for schools to assess their performance in these areas. Both are relatively easy to administer, score and to report results from.

In addition, in schools with a good school climate, discussion and dialogue among teachers is encouraged, and there is a willingness to share expertise and experience in developing better ways to improve teaching in that school. Both the WES and RPTIM surveys provide starting points for schools to reflect on their own situation and improve their school climate and staff-development practices.

The use of established means for school types should provide a most informative benchmark for schools when they compare their results. Indeed, it is probable that larger schools could run one or both of these surveys for a section or subject department. After assessing and diagnosing specific areas in which they may wish to embark on strategies to improve their performance, schools could use the instruments again at a later date and evaluate the success of their strategies.

Teachers should evaluate a school in a systematic manner. Obviously, when schools set about improving their efficiency and effectiveness they delve into the very complex areas of school climate and staff-development practices. Much thought and discussion is needed before progress can be made. A great deal needs to be done in most schools, and more time must be given to planning. The use of comprehensive instruments, such as these surveys, provides a framework

and starting point for teachers' action and discussion. These instruments provide a comprehensive coverage of the complex clusters of variables that interact in daily school life. The tabulated results form a quick way of checking on teachers' perceptions of aspects of climate and staff development.

This study has dealt with teachers' perceptions of school climate and professional development. While the author believes that a link exists between these and more effective teaching, and better student outcomes, it cannot be argued from the data. However, the literature review provided many arguments that a good school climate and good staff-development practices are essential for more effective schools, for school improvement and better student learning. This study should help to demonstrate the link between school climate, professional development, effective schooling and school improvement.

As stated in Chapter 2, it was not the intention of this thesis to define or discuss the many controversies surrounding the conceptualisation of 'effectiveness', nor the substantial research that school's 'effect' accounts for far less than socio-economic family background does in students' achievement. The purpose of referring to recent studies on 'effective' or 'good' schools was to provide links between the concepts of school climate and staff-development practices.

In discussions about the relationship between school climate and staff-development practices with knowledgeable practitioners (described in Chapter 8), and in subsequent studies in Tasmania, the suggestion was made that this relationship may well be interactive,

though this cannot be substantiated statistically from the WES and RPTIM data collected in this study.

If the relationship between school climate and staff-development practices is interactive, then changes to factors in the school climate are important in changing staff-development practices, and vice versa. The overlapping of research and findings about school effectiveness and school improvement in Chapter 8, suggests this is so. Researchers in both lines of inquiry talked about clusters of interacting variables that were difficult to isolate and define. This difficulty was addressed when developing the conceptual framework for the study described in Chapter 3. The nature of the relationship was further outlined through examination of specific interview questions in four school case studies in Chapter 7.

Of the two concepts of school climate and staff-development practices, the former is possibly the most elusive and the more difficult one to alter. If the relationship between school climate and staff-development practices is interactive, as suggested here, then if one is improved, it is likely to improve aspects of the other. On this basis, it would appear more direct, quicker and easier to change aspects of staff-development practices thereby improving school climate and achieving better student outcomes. This may well be more efficient and cost effective.

9.3.4. School improvement strategies and processes

From the Evaluation of Professional Development Practices in Tasmania, 1983-85, it was evident that the schools able to implement

innovations and maintain them, were schools with positive school climate and good staff-development practices. This was demonstrated in the sample of case studies of 'good' schools in Chapter 7. It was also the case that schools with a negative school climate or poor staff-development practices were rarely able to make lasting changes.

These findings are consistent with the suggested educational platform for a hypothetical 'good' school suggested in Chapter 2 to explain the relationship between a positive school climate and good staff-development practices. The educational platform was based on a set of values of how people relate and work together, on beliefs about what motivates staff to improve their performance, and how teachers grow within the teaching profession. It was argued that a leader who fosters characteristics at the positive end of school climate will also foster the positive attributes of staff development. In doing this a leader would be focussing attention on positive aspects of human nature to develop a good environment where growth of teachers is encouraged and the processes and strategies for change and innovation are discussed and supported.

This theory is also supported by other research evidence reported in this thesis such as by Joyce, Bush, and McKibbin (1982), who suggested schools can be classified according to their effect on the professional development of the individuals that work within them. They found the professional development of teachers to be greatly influenced by the school climate or 'growth state' of the school within which they work. They classified school environments, according to their effect on the professional development of the teachers who

work within them as 'Energising', 'Maintenance-orientated' or 'Depressant'. The schools described as 'Energising' possess characteristics consistent with the educational platform for the hypothetical 'good' school suggested in Chapter 2 of this thesis. They are characterised by norms of cooperation with others, by valuing new ideas and by a capacity of self examination. Staff in these schools have the need for stability satisfied and are free to practise new skills and implement curriculum change.

Most researchers would agree with the dilemma posed by Anderson that the difficulty in describing school climate is in describing what variables should be used, and how many. The literature reviews in this thesis suggest there are many. When summarised, there were specific characteristics commonly mentioned in descriptions about 'good' schools (see pages 65 and 66). These were consistent with the bodies of literature dealing with school climate, effective schools and school improvement. A similar set of characteristics was developed by Moos from a separate body of research. The literature reviewed about staff-development practices also provided a consistent set of characteristics and these were similar to the practices listed by Wood et al. in the RPTIM model.

The interacting nature of these clusters of characteristics between Moos' WES categories and sub scales was noted. It was further suggested that clusters of the school climate variables may well interact with characteristics of staff-development. The problem of defining which were the key characteristics was not part of this research design. Indeed, when one considers Fullans' comments about

educational change being a process of coming to grips with the multiple realities of the people who are the main participants in implementing change, it may be impossible to isolate key characteristics. Miles likewise argues that we should have a more holistic approach to school improvement that allows for interaction of variables, and clusters of activities and sub-processes.

Numerous school improvement research studies are suggested from the literature reviewed and research commenced in Chapter 8. Fullan and others talked about the fragility of the implementation stage and Miles et al. about institutionalising an innovation. Practitioners realise it is one thing to start an innovation and yet another to make that innovation last and become part of the school practices and routines. The RPTIM model suggests specific practices for implementation and maintenance of an innovation. It was also noted in the Tasmanian evaluation that some schools are more successful at innovation and institutionalisation. We do not quite know whether the same processes underlie both implementation and institutionalisation, or whether good implementation is a necessary precursor. Furthermore, we do not know much about the trade-offs between strategies for effective implementation and effective institutionalisation. These may conflict with each other. Miles provides examples:

'Or, "starting small" makes for a more careful implementation - but delays the useful effect that widespread use has on institutionalisation. We suspect - but we do not know - that school leaders who are good at helping innovations getting started (eager, inventive, stimulative in their style may not be the same people who are good at getting changes to stay in the system (systematic, "establishment-orientated", stabilising.)'
(Miles et al., 1987:265)

In addition, we do not know how long it takes to make positive changes to school climate and staff-development practices and how to maintain these. There is evidence that major changes to school climate can be made within twelve months, but we do not know if they can be maintained and whether certain characteristics or clusters of them are the key. We do not know which are the key characteristics in school climate and staff-development that assist each stage of change in school improvement activities.

Well-designed case studies are needed, to examine school cultures and assist in detailing the impact of institutionalisation processes. This would lead to increased 'meaning' of the innovation for participants, enhance the professional feelings of teachers, and would increase the legitimacy of shared norms and a sense of staff cohesion.

Certainly the methodology used in the case studies undertaken during the Tasmanian evaluation would appear ideal for this process. These case studies used an 'inside out' viewpoint. They examined the issue from a participants view and thus provided illuminating perspectives of the process and conflict points. This 'inside out' perspective is more likely to take account of the real experiences of schools as they struggle with the implementation of school improvement.

Most evaluators used a process of 'triangulation' which involved obtaining viewpoints of different participants in the process, such as teachers, principal, senior staff, parents, librarians or other ancillary staff. Using multiple data sources and differing perceptions of the process provides deeper understanding of the issues. Convergent

findings increase researchers and participants confidence in the results. During the Tasmanian evaluation this process did achieve its objectives of identifying and documenting good staff-development practices and suggesting ways to improve these schools.

9.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This research program was undertaken in the work-settings of schools. The purpose of the case studies was to allow teachers to identify good staff-development practices and to reflect on how to improve these. As such, it has had a considerable effect upon practising teachers, school improvement strategies and school policies. During the first administrations of the WES and RPTIM instruments, in the 1983-1984 case studies, teachers in these schools reflected on their school climates and staff-development practices. The teachers then took action to improve both. While the statistical study described in this thesis established a relationship between school climate and staff-development practices, it did not relate these to effective schools or improved student learning. The literature in these fields suggests that a relationship between effective schooling and positive school climate or staff-development practices could be established. From the analysis of the case studies in schools, it was also tentatively suggested that schools which had a 'good' school climate also had better staff-development practices. The schools involved in this study were not selected to meet predetermined criteria for determining effective schools such as those applied by Caldwell (1986) in ERASP.

The thesis has provided evidence to show a relationship exists between school climate and staff-development practices. It is now appropriate and timely to develop a research methodology and to test a hypothesis that:

'Schools having relatively high levels of involvement in staff development tend to have a positive climate whose characteristics have been identified in studies of effective schools.'

Alternatively, this link might be made with students' achievement in a specific school or group of schools. Changes in students' achievement may be recorded over say 36 months. Staff could similarly complete the WES and RPTIM surveys over that period of time. The in-depth analysis of such information could be useful in establishing a link between school climate, staff-development practices and effective schools.

The different samples used in America and Tasmania for WES and RPTIM meant that it was not possible to compare results to determine whether cultural differences have an effect on the instruments when used in Australia. In any case this may be difficult to prove. Probably it is as important to investigate whether the instruments can be made as culture-free as possible. Researchers in other countries may well set up a hypothesis and research design to establish if the instruments are culture-free.

The thesis describes an experimental design that included a traditional, empirical study in the context of school case studies that were completed in the work setting. Additional procedures could be developed and used to observe and document suggestions, strategies

adopted, and changes that occurred, within the school from the perspectives of teachers, administrators, students and parents. It is only through such research, based in the practices of schools, that we will better understand the nature of the characteristics of school climate and of staff-development practices, and the interaction between these characteristics and school improvement activities. In view of the nature of the task and time involved, this type of research may best be conducted by a combination of a 'friendly outsider' who was a little detached from school pressures, interests and politics, and an 'inside out' view of a teacher collecting data from multiple sources within a school.

As with all educational research, interpretations of the statistical results should be made with caution, for example the relationship between the WES and RPTIM findings from the study of a representative sample of Tasmanian schools. Care should be taken before generalising the results to other settings in Australia and to other countries. More research needs to be completed to confirm these findings. The statistical data in this thesis was provided as evidence to support the relationship between school climate and staff-development practices.

One interesting extension to the work about school climate previously mentioned in this thesis, would be to develop a Likert scale for responses to the WES instrument. Validative and normative data would then have to be collected. Such a scale would allow for a range of teachers' opinions, as in the RPTIM instrument, rather than forcing teachers into a 'true' or 'false' response.

The aspects of school climate examined in this investigation have been limited to the teachers' perceptions of their work environment for teachers and for teaching. By limiting the study in this way, it is acknowledged that a school may be identified where the climate for teachers is good, but the students' perceptions might be quite negative about the climate for them, or a variable picture depending on the socio-economic background of the students. A study needs to be carried out to find the correlation between students' and teachers' views of school climate.

A further extension would be to develop an instrument, more comprehensive in nature to take in the current concept of school culture as viewed by researchers. This may be best achieved by incorporating the present WES survey that describe some of the aspects of school climate mentioned in the development of the conceptual framework in Chapter 3, with recent findings related to the more comprehensive concept of school culture. As it is presently constructed, the WES appears to provide a more adequate coverage of these characteristics of school climate than the other instruments discussed in section 3.3.1.

It is hoped that educational researchers and teachers will make use of the widely applicable and extensively validated WES and RPTIM instruments in assessing the important concepts of school climate and staff-development practices, and in pursuing research and practical applications.

For example, assessments involving the WES could form the basis for studies of the effects of school environment on such outcomes as

teachers' job satisfaction or students' achievement or morale. Further investigations might be made into the links between classroom and school environments (Fraser and Rentoul, 1982). WES is likely to provide a useful source of criteria for the evaluation of innovative or alternative provisions for education (Anderson, Walberg and Welch, 1969; De Piono, 1980; Fraser, 1979; McClure et al., 1980; Williamson, Tobin and Fraser, 1986).

Similar comments could be made for the RPTIM survey. This comprehensive and validated instrument provides an excellent basis for assessing staff-development practices at school or system level. Assessments involving the RPTIM instrument could form the basis of studies on such outcomes as job satisfaction of teachers, changes in school improvement activities, improving teachers' practice or students' achievement, or studies related to school improvement. The RPTIM instrument is likely to provide a useful source of criteria in the evaluation of innovation, or in monitoring staff involvement in various stages of change in schools. Teachers might also use assessments of their perceptions of 'actual' and 'preferred' school climate as a basis for discussion of improvements in their school environments which would reduce 'actual-preferred' differences. (Fraser, 1981b; Moos, 1981; Docker et al., 1985; Docker and Fisher, 1985c).

Another potential area for research would be the different results from different types of schools. Why is it that teachers in primary schools perceive a more positive school climate and better staff-development practices? Some differences in primary and high school types were discussed in sections 8.3 and 9.3.1. A future study could

investigate teachers' perceptions of characteristics of school climates and staff-development practices in these two types of schools in order to establish why primary teachers generally have more positive perceptions of the 'actual' situation and how perceptions of high school teachers could be improved.

Consideration could be given as to whether these differences on 'actual' WES and RPTIM are due to:

- . the packaging of teachers into subject disciplines and the autonomy of subject departments;
- . the requirements of the Schools Board and an assessment driven curriculum;
- . difficulties for leaders in establishing a school mission and common goals among a basically factionalised staff;
- . aspects related to adolescent students and the issues of student control which are thought to be required;
- . a more aggressively experimental and assertive student body;
- . more onerous demands on teachers because of the higher number of student contacts;
- . the lack of community interest in high school education; or
- . a consequence of the organisationally complex school physical plant.

Furthermore, the evidence presented in this thesis and discussed in Chapter 7 suggested that the relationship between school climate and staff-development practices is an interactive one. This appears to be a worthy hypothesis to test. A school could be pretested with both the WES and RPTIM instruments. A strategy could then be developed to improve staff-development practices using the RPTIM model and successful staff-development practices identified in this study. A post-test of the school, at the end of a year, should provide evidence whether the relationship is indeed interactive. That is, if improvements in the school climate and staff-development practices occurred, it could be argued that attempting to improve staff-development

practices may be a more direct way of achieving positive improvements to staff-development practices and to school climate. Intervention approaches working on staff-development practices may be more efficient in terms of cost, and energy of teachers.

While making this suggestion, it is noted that there appears to be a strong potential for interaction and interdependency in the everyday life of schools, and it may well be that climate and staff-development practices cannot be, or should not be, addressed in a linear fashion. It is more probable that effective staff development will have a significant contribution to make to better school climate. Or alternatively, they may be so intertwined that both should be addressed simultaneously.

A study examining the education platforms of school leaders and the way they approach the subtleties involved with school improvement may be worthwhile. The WES and RPTIM instruments could be useful in establishing a leader's priorities and progress in this task. Studying a school leader involved in attempts to innovate would mean studying most areas covered in the two models. It may also help to establish the interrelated elements of both models and perhaps identify the key elements among them. It has been noted that alterations to one of WES sub-scales may effect other sub-scales. If innovations were properly undertaken they would imply the use of change processes and appropriate staff-development practices for school improvement, similar to those suggested in the RPTIM model.

In a future research study to examine the interacting nature of the characteristics of school climate and staff-development practices, and to attempt to isolate key characteristics, the author of this study would suggest:

- A case study approach similar to that described in this thesis. Less emphasis may be placed on interviews of participants and more on description of changes, the influence of these, and the perceptions of participants. It would be necessary to establish the educational platform of the key participants in each school. The study should involve a number (say four to eight) of previously identified 'good' and 'poor' schools undergoing changes and be conducted over a three to five year period.
- The WES and RPTIM surveys should be used to monitor progress.
- Data gathered to provide a student perspective on school changes, morale and aspects of school climate.
- An outside facilitator or 'researcher' to work within this set of schools to obtain an overview perspective and offer assistance to the school evaluators.
- Some sort of predictive study may be desirable. It would assist the researcher to work with staff in each school and to formulate the knowledge to be gained from the study more precisely. Also when checked with later reality, the results of predictive studies will provide an unambiguous validation on the hypothesis of the study. Consider, for example, a study that predicted a change in implementing a certain innovation and what the effects on school climate and staff-development practices would be. Such a study would also assist the principal and teachers to predict likely outcomes with the researcher. In addition, it would provide many more people looking for inputs and minor changes and suggesting ways to account for these changes. Such collaboration may greatly assist in an examination of the complex change process, with multiple actors striving to identify and describe interaction of clusters of variables within a school.

In the author's opinion, it is only after such detailed study that we may be able to describe the complexities of change processes and the nature of interaction of variables in schools.

A most productive area for further research would be to develop strategies to create a more effective school, document the strategies applied, and observing the subsequent changes in a school. This thesis provides much detail on two critical elements associated with 'effective' or 'good' schools. The WES and RPTIM instruments offer a means to assessing these elements. The suggestions made by researchers that form the conceptual framework of this study (shown in Chapter 3), and those by practitioners shown in Chapter 8, are similar and complement each other. By applying these suggestions, it is implied from the findings in this thesis that schools may become more effective. Research is needed about applying the WES and the RPTIM instruments in an experimental situation, where pretesting, application of strategies for change, and post-testing are applied over a 12-month or preferably longer period.

9.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Many concepts and issues debated in education take up the time and the energy of participants, and yet change is not forthcoming because the issues are too elusive. Perhaps too much time is spent on things we can do little about. The concept of effective schools has received increased public attention over the last decade. The concern about effective schools arises because there are schools that are judged 'better' by educators or parents, or they achieve 'better' student learning. In the search for what makes more effective schools, most researchers and practitioners list school climate and staff-development practices as critical ingredients. The same two concepts

are listed by most researchers when discussing school improvement strategies.

This study has investigated and established a relationship between school climate and staff-development practices, on the basis of results obtained from the WES and RPTIM studies. This was supported by analysis of questions from selected school case studies of professional development. It has been suggested that this relationship is interactive, that is, changes to characteristics of the school climate may well affect characteristics of staff-development and vice versa. From the review of the literature in Chapters 2 and 8, it can be seen that most researchers would argue that the characteristics associated with these two concepts can be changed. This was supported by teachers in schools. Strategies for changing these characteristics were developed in Chapters 3 and 8. The findings reported have worldwide implications and are a substantial contribution to the body of knowledge in this area.

Also, the data reported in this study were gathered in Tasmanian schools. The WES and RPTIM surveys led teachers in schools to reflect on how to improve their practice. A planned outcome of the case studies on professional development was to develop a policy and program of activities for each school. The study has been significant in that it had a considerable effect on practising teachers, school improvement strategies and school policies. The teachers' reflections on the data reported in this thesis prompted action to improve school practices.

The study also formed a contribution to research. It described a traditional, empirical study in the form of case studies that were made in a work setting. The planned outcomes to these case studies were achieved. The instruments used in the empirical study have now been extensively trialled, and validated. These instruments and the suggested strategies for school improvement developed in Chapters 3 and 8 could be used with confidence in schools elsewhere. More research would need to be completed in other Australian states or other countries to establish normative data that would allow schools to compare their results with other schools of similar type. However, this is probably the most insignificant use of the survey data as it is more important for schools to examine the discrepancy between their own 'actual' and 'preferred' results and to develop strategies to improve aspects of their school climate and staff-development practices. Both instruments are most suitable for this purpose and the strategies for school improvement suggested by researchers and practitioners appear applicable to schools of all school types.

The author recommends that these instruments be extensively used by schools and researchers, to follow some of the lines of inquiry suggested in implications for further research.

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appendix 1

EVALUATION PROPOSAL

EVALUATION OF STATEWIDE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT COURSES

MR. J. DOCKER, DR. D. FISHER, PROFESSOR P. HUGHES

FOCUS OF EVALUATION

- (I) C.C.E.T. COURSES AS DESCRIBED ABOVE INCLUDING
INTENSIVE SENIOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT COURSES - CCET
- (II) THE EFFECT OF THESE COURSES ON TEACHERS AND
ON THEIR CLASSROOM PRACTICE. - SCHOOL

OBJECTIVES (CONTINUED)

SCHOOL

- * TO COLLECT AND SUMMARISE RESEARCH ON THE EFFECTS OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT COURSES ON OPERATIONS AT SCHOOL LEVEL.
- * TO ESTABLISH IF THERE ARE LINKS BETWEEN PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT COURSES AND SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT.
- * TO ASSESS THE EFFECTS OF C.C.E.T. COURSES IN GOVERNMENT AND NON-GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS. INFORMATION GAINED WOULD INCLUDE PERSONAL SATISFACTION TO TEACHERS, RESPONSE IN SCHOOLS ON COMPLETION OF COURSE, IMPLICATIONS FOR SCHOOL AND CLASSROOM PRACTICE.
- * TO IDENTIFY AREAS OF NEED FOR TEACHERS IN-SERVICE COURSES AS PERCEIVED BY TEACHERS, STUDENTS, PARENTS AND COMMUNITY.
- * TO DEVELOP A PROCESS WITHIN A GROUP OF SCHOOLS WHEREBY A TEAM OF TEACHERS USE THE INFORMATION GAINED TO DEVELOP A COMMITMENT AMONG STAFF TO USE EFFECTIVELY EXPERTISE GAINED WITHIN THEIR SCHOOL.

OBJECTIVES

C.C.E.T.

- * TO SURVEY TEACHERS WHO HAVE COMPLETED C.C.E.T. COURSES. THIS WOULD PROVIDE INFORMATION INCLUDING FACTORS MOTIVATING TEACHERS TO ENROL, TEACHER EXPECTATION, NEEDS ASSESSMENT, COMMUNICATION, ENROLMENT PROCEDURES, NUMBER OF COURSES COMPLETED.
- * TO COMPLETE AN OVERVIEW OF C.C.E.T. ENROLMENTS TO ESTABLISH THE NUMBER OF COURSES COMPLETED BY INDIVIDUALS, SCHOOLS ATTENDED, SCHOOLS WITH STAFF NOT PARTICIPATING, REASONS BEHIND WITHDRAWALS FROM COURSES, BREAKDOWN OF NON-TEACHING ENROLMENTS.
- * TO EXAMINE ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT WHAT CONSTITUTES A GOOD IN-SERVICE COURSE.
- * TO GATHER INFORMATION ON TEACHER EXPECTATIONS AT THE BEGINNING OF A COURSE AND COMPARE WITH WHAT THEY BELIEVE THEY ACHIEVED AT THE END OF THE SAME COURSE.
- * TO USE THE INFORMATION GAINED TO FORM A BASIS FOR POLICY DECISIONS CONCERNING FUTURE DIRECTIONS OF THE C.C.E.T.

EVALUATION PROCEDURE

STAGE 1 (12 MONTHS)

- * ESTABLISH A STEERING COMMITTEE AND APPROPRIATE SUBCOMMITTEES.
THIS COMMITTEE WILL PLAN AND ADVISE IN THE EVALUATION. MR. DOCKER WILL BE RESPONSIBLE FOR IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PLAN.
REPRESENTATIVES OF THE C.C.E.T. AND OF PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS WILL BE COOPTED AS APPROPRIATE.
- * COMPLETE LITERATURE SEARCHES ON;
 - (I) FACTORS NECESSARY FOR SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT
 - (II) WHAT CONSTITUTES A GOOD PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT COURSE
- * COMPLETE A NUMBER OF CASE STUDIES OF TEACHERS WHO HAVE COMPLETED C.C.E.T. COURSES. THESE CASE STUDIES WOULD FOCUS ON COURSES, PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLICATIONS WITHIN SCHOOLS.
- * COMPLETE OVERVIEW STUDY OF C.C.E.T. OFFERINGS.
- * COMPLETE SURVEY OF TEACHERS.
- * OBTAIN INFORMATION ON TEACHERS' EXPECTATIONS AT BEGINNING OF A NUMBER OF COURSES. CHECK ON LEVEL OF ACHIEVEMENT OF THESE EXPECTATIONS AT END OF COURSE.
- * FROM THE INFORMATION GAINED DESIGN A NUMBER OF INSTRUMENTS TO MEASURE TEACHER REACTION TO AND APPLICATION OF KNOWLEDGE/SKILLS FROM C.C.E.T. COURSES. THESE INSTRUMENTS WILL BE USED IN SELECTED SCHOOLS.
- * COMPLETE A PROFILE OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES UNDERTAKEN BY STAFF IN THE SCHOOLS SELECTED FOR CASE STUDIES.

EVALUATION PROCEDURE

STAGE II (12 MONTHS)

- * DEVELOP CASE STUDIES IN TEN TO FIFTEEN SCHOOLS.
- * COMPLETE CASE STUDIES.
- * WRITE A REPORT TO SYNTHESIZE THIS INFORMATION.
- * INITIATE PROCESSES TO IMPROVE USE OF STAFF RESOURCES IN THESE TEN SCHOOLS.

KEY EDUCATIONAL ISSUES ADDRESSED

TO ASSESS

- (I) THE MOST APPROPRIATE WAYS TO RELATE COURSE THEORY TO CLASSROOM PRACTICE.
- (II) WHAT TEACHERS DO IN THEIR CLASSROOM AND SCHOOLS AS A RESULT OF EXTENDED PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES.
- (III) HOW TEACHER RESOURCES (EXPERTISE) ARE USED IN SCHOOLS.
- (IV) WHAT PROCESSES TO SUPPORT USE OF TEACHER RESOURCES (EXPERTISE) ARE MOST EFFECTIVE IN SCHOOLS.
- (V) THE MOST EFFECTIVE WAY TO DEVELOP SCHOOL STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS AND SCHOOL POLICY ON STAFF DEVELOPMENT.

METHODOLOGY FOR SCHOOL CASE STUDIES

- (I) SELECTION OF A TEAM TO DEVELOP CASE STUDIES IN TEN SCHOOLS. MEMBERS OF THE TEAM SHOULD BE EXPERIENCED TEACHERS IN THEIR SCHOOLS.
- (II) TEAM TO EXAMINE AND ADAPT DRAFT MEASURING INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES AND MAKE DECISIONS ON HOW AND WHEN THEY SHOULD BE USED. FORM A CONSENSUS AGREEMENT ON HOW THESE SCHOOL STUDIES SHOULD BE COMPLETED AND REPORTED.
- (III) MEASURING INSTRUMENTS SHOULD ENABLE
 - . AN ACCURATE DESCRIPTION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES IN EACH SCHOOL IN 1982-83
 - . EXAMINATION OF LINKS BETWEEN PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT COURSES AND SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT
 - . APPLICATION OF SKILLS/KNOWLEDGE FROM COURSES TO CLASSROOM PRACTICE. / THESE INSTRUMENTS WOULD BE USED EARLY IN STAGE II TO COLLECT DATA WITHIN EACH SCHOOL.
- (IV) EACH TEAM MEMBER WOULD ESTABLISH A PROCESS BY WHICH A TEAM OF TEACHERS IN EACH SCHOOL COULD EXAMINE THE DATA COLLECTED IN THAT SCHOOL AND REFLECT ON HOW THEY COULD MORE EFFECTIVELY USE STAFF RESOURCES. THIS PROCESS WOULD ALLOW EACH SCHOOL TO EXAMINE THE WAY IN WHICH THEY USE EXPERTISE GAINED BY STAFF AND ALLOW TEACHERS MORE SAY IN THE WAY THAT THEY BEST LEARN.
- (V) THE GROUP OF SELECTED TEAM MEMBERS WOULD WORK TOGETHER FOR THREE ONE WEEK PERIODS.
 - WEEK 1. - APPROXIMATELY NOVEMBER 1983. EXAMINATION AND ADOPTION OF DRAFT MEASURING INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES.
 - WEEK 2. - JANUARY - FEBRUARY 1984. FINALISATION OF INSTRUMENTS, CASE STUDY PLAN, REPORT FORMAT
 - WEEK 3. - MAY 1984. DISCUSSION OF CASE STUDY PROGRESS WRITING UP OF CASE STUDIES. EXAMINATION OF WAYS OF ESTABLISHING A SCHOOL STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM AND POLICY AS A RESULT OF CASE STUDY.

PROJECT OUTCOMES

FOR C.C.E.T.

A DATA BASE WHICH MAY HELP IN FUTURE POLICY DECISIONS
FOR

- . ADVERTISING / COMMUNICATION / ADMINISTRATION
- . COURSE OFFERINGS/NEEDS ASSESSMENT
- . MOST APPROPRIATE METHODOLOGY USED IN COURSES
- . TYPE OF COURSE DELIVERY
- . EVALUATION OF COURSES IN SCHOOLS

FOR SCHOOLS

A DATA BASE THAT MAY HELP IN

- . IMPROVING THEORY - PRACTICE LINK
- . USING STAFF EXPERTISE MORE EFFECTIVELY
- . A PROCESS TO DEVELOP STAFF BUILDING TEAMS
COMMITTED TO IMPROVE STAFF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
- . ASSESSING STAFF AND SCHOOL NEEDS
- . DEVELOPMING A SCHOOL STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM AND
SCHOOL POLICY.

PERIOD OF PROJECT

STAGE 1 (1983)

GENERAL DATA COLLECTION, TEACHER CASE STUDIES,
LITERATURE SEARCHES. DEVELOPMENT OF MEASURING
INSTRUMENTS. SELECTION AND TRAINING OF STAFF.

STAGE 2 (1984)

SCHOOL CASE STUDIES. COLLECTION OF INFORMATION
IN SCHOOLS. PRODUCTION OF REPORT. INITIATING PROCESSES
TO IMPROVE USE OF STAFF EXPERTISE IN SCHOOLS.

ESTIMATES OF FUNDING

		\$
STAGE 1.	PART-TIME RESEARCH OFFICER'S SALARY	7,500
	TRAVEL AND ACCOMMODATION	2,000
	CONTINGENCY FOR PHOTOCOPYING, TYPING, LITERATURE SEARCHES ETC.	1,000
	RESEARCH ASSISTANT/S	2,500
		<u>\$13,000</u>
STAGE 2	PART-TIME RESEARCH OFFICER'S SALARY	7,500
	TEACHER RELIEF 150 DAYS	10,000
	THESE FUNDS ARE TO RELIEVE TEN TEACHERS FROM NORMAL SCHOOL DUTIES FOR THREE STAGGERED WEEKS OVER 1984.	
	TRAVEL AND ACCOMMODATION	2,000
	CONTINGENCY - TYPING OF REPORT ETC.	1,000
	TOTAL	<u>20,500</u>

THE TOTAL COST OF THE PROJECT FROM THE SCHOOLS COMMISSION
WOULD BE \$33,500 FOR STAGES I AND II

EVALUATION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT COURSES

ESTABLISH STEERING COMMITTEE AND SUBCOMMITTEES

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS - ACHIEVEMENT

LITERATURE SEARCHES

SUMMARY OF LITERATURE SEARCHES

OVERVIEW OF C.C.E.T. STUDENTS

EXAMINATION OF NON-TEACHING SUB GROUP

EXAMINATION OF WITHDRAWAL SUB GROUP

DEVELOP TEACHER INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

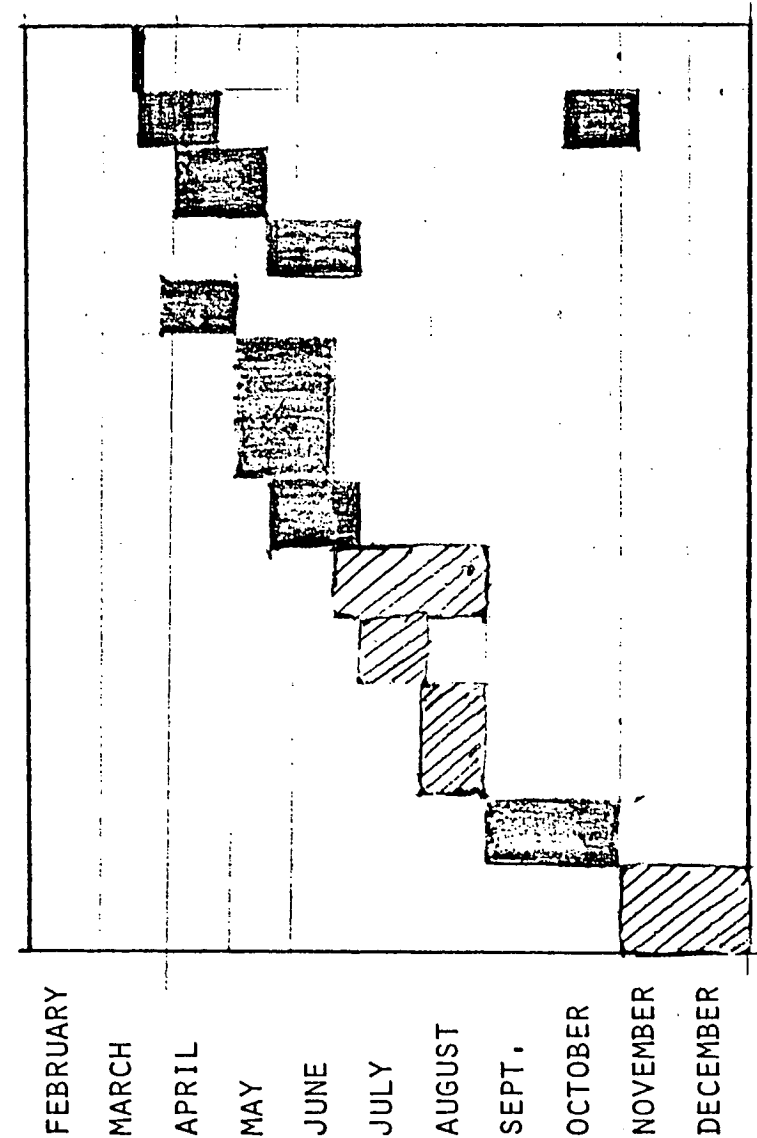
TEACHER CASE STUDIES

DEVELOPMENT OF C.C.E.T. COURSES SURVEY

DEVELOPMENT OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT -
SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT WORK SURVEY

COMPLETION OF QUESTIONNAIRES

ANALYSIS OF QUESTIONNAIRES - SUMMARY



1983

SCHOOL CASE STUDIES

SELECTION OF SCHOOLS FOR CASE STUDIES.

MEETING WITH PRINCIPALS

COMPLETE PROFILE OF PROFESSIONAL
DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES IN
EACH SCHOOL.

INITIAL MEETING WITH CASE
STUDY TEACHERS.

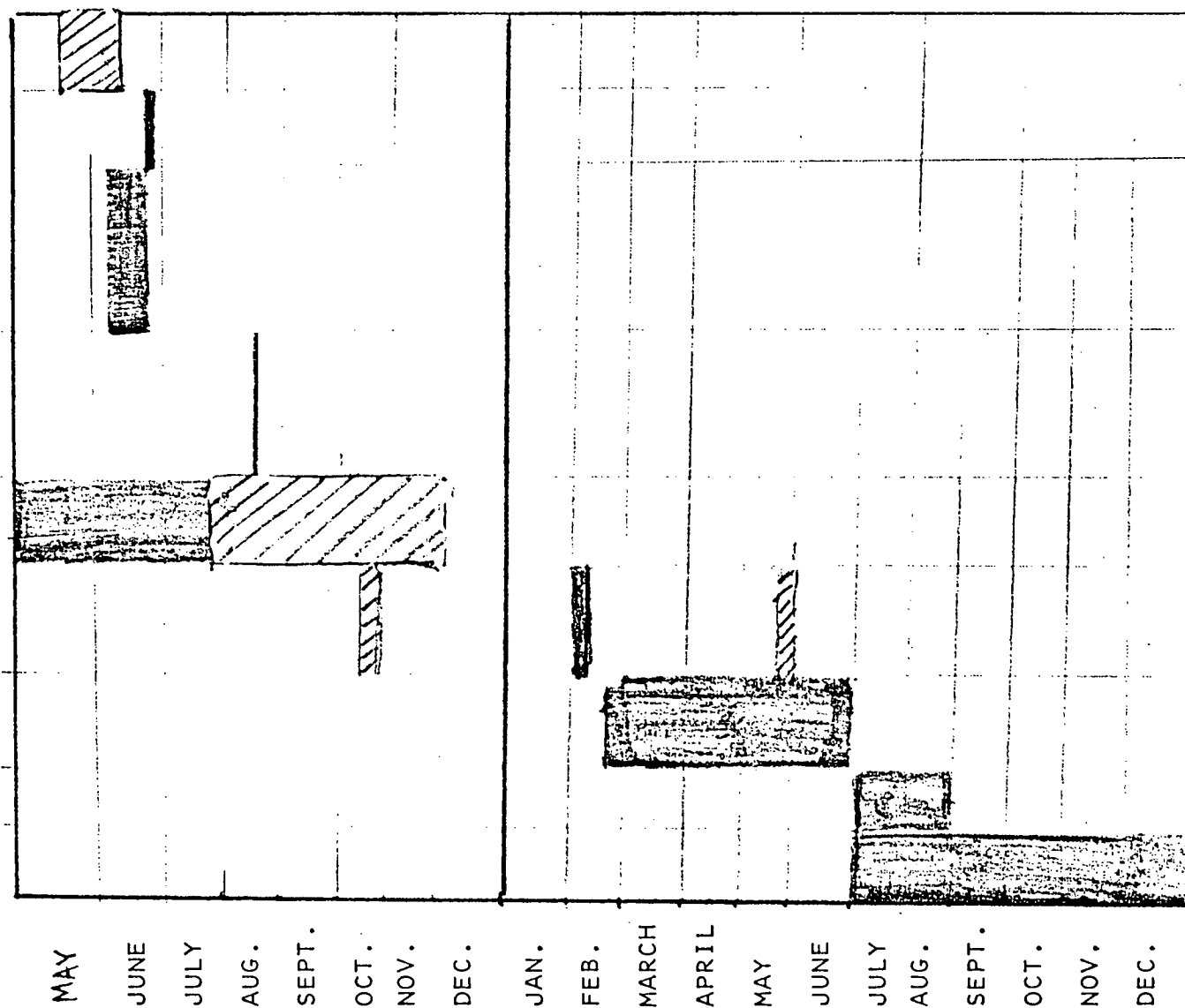
DEVELOPMENT OF DRAFT INSTRUMENTS

WORKING WITH CASE STUDY TEACHERS - SEMINARS

COMPLETE CASE STUDIES

REPORT

INITIATE PROCESSES TO IMPROVE
STAFF RESOURCES.



1983

1984



EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

IN REPLY PLEASE QUOTE:

18th May 1983

MEMORANDUM

EVALUATION OF STATEWIDE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT COURSES

Representatives of the Education Department, the University of Tasmania, and the Tasmanian College of Advanced Education are attempting to evaluate the impact of Statewide C.C.E.T. courses on teachers and classroom practice.

The project has the full support of the Education Department and has been submitted by the Education Department to the Schools Commission for funding as a Project of National Significance. The Department has decided to proceed with the project and has planned a number of contingencies for completing the work depending on funding granted. In addition the project has the full support of the C.C.E.T. Board and the President of the Tasmanian Teachers' Federation.

The evaluation is being planned and implemented by Mr. J. Docker, Dr. D. Fisher and Professor Hughes. The evaluation team would be responsible for the training of teachers involved in the school research and for development of a methodology for the school case studies with these teachers. Once the school case studies are under way in early 1984 the evaluation team would be available for advice if requested.

The evaluation will consist of three stages:

<u>Stage 1</u> (1983)	Examination of C.C.E.T. Courses. This will include surveys of a large number of teachers who have completed C.C.E.T. courses in 1982 or who are studying these courses in 1983.
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<u>Stage 2</u> (1983-84)	Case studies in ten to twenty schools. These case studies will evaluate staff development and use of staff expertise in these schools. Case studies will be essentially descriptive and include such features as
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- . inventory of staff expertise
- . perceptions of teachers and senior staff on staff development
- . needs assessment
- . examination of links between professional development activities and school improvement

Stage 3
(1984) Development of a school policy and a program of staff development. This development will take place within each school selected for case study (Stage 2) if that school believed it to be desirable.

Essentially, schools in the case study will gather information and then develop a policy and a program on staff development.

Key areas for assessment are listed below.

- (i) Most appropriate ways to relate course theory to classroom practice.
- (ii) What teachers do in their classroom and schools as a result of extended professional activities.
- (iii) How teacher resources (expertise) are used in schools.
- (iv) What processes to support use of teacher resources (expertise) are most effective in schools.
- (v) Most effective ways to develop school staff development programs and school policy on staff development.

Project outcomes for school would include development of a data base that may help in the following ways.

- (i) Improving the theory - practice link
- (ii) Improving the effective use of staff expertise
- (iii) Identifying processes to develop staff teams committed to improve professional development
- (iv) Indicating ways of assessing staff and school needs
- (v) Helping to develop a school staff development program and school policy on staff development.

It is necessary at this stage to locate schools interested in taking part in case study section of the project. Ideally we would prefer a spread of schools, primary to high, small to large, and schools from all regions of the State. Expectations that would be placed on schools taking part in the case studies are:

- . a member of the school staff (or Principal) should be prepared to write up the school case study. This may be counted as a Bachelor of Education 'Education Project' or as part of a Master of Education 'Dissertation'. School case study work would take place between February - June 1984;
- . the school staff member above would have support of the school Principal;
- . the staff members in all schools would work together as a team to develop a similar set of measuring instruments and a common framework for writing up the case studies. These meetings would probably include three one week periods, in October 1983, February vacation 1984 and May 1984; (This aspect will depend on relief funding.)
- . the school Principal and staff would agree to support the development of a school policy and program of staff development;
- . experience by the selected staff member in management, administration or evaluation would be desirable but not necessary.

For the school staff member undertaking the responsibility for writing up the school case study the demands would be similar to that of completing an 'Education Project' or a minor 'Dissertation'. Use of measuring instruments, interviews etc, necessary for writing this material should be able to be completed in staff meetings or after school with minimal disruption to school staff. The teacher being absent from school to work with other case study members from other schools in the two weeks in October 1983 and May 1984 would be subject to relief being provided.

Once schools have signified a commitment in taking part in the evaluation, the Steering Committee will meet with the Principals of those schools in July to further discuss the project. Suggestions on project design from that group will be most welcome. This would be followed by a meeting with the staff members completing the school case study in August 1983.

Schools interested in obtaining more information on the evaluation, or in taking part in the evaluation as one of the school case studies, should write to Mr. J. Docker, C.C.E.T. 2 Edward Street, Glebe 7000 or telephone (002) 302506 by July 8th, 1983.

I would urge your support in this evaluation as it is focussed on the development and effective use of our most important resource - teachers. Participation in this project will provide positive benefits directly to your school and to the development of teachers throughout the Education Department.

C.B. Ward
Deputy Director General of Education

appendix 2

SCHOOLS INVOLVED IN CASE STUDIES - TASMANIAN EVALUATION

SCHOOLS INITIALLY INVOLVED IN CASE-STUDIES

CASE STUDY EVALUATOR

SCHOOL

SOUTH

Mrs. Margaret Rose	Bridgewater primary school
Mr. Bill Edmunds	Lauderdale primary school
Mr. Jeff Brown	Collinsvale primary school
Mrs Glenda Russell	New Norfolk primary school
Mrs. Norah Reid	Duntroon primary school
*Mr Michael Sheehan	Rose Bay high school
*Mr. Greg Foot	Cosgrove high school
Mr. Kevin Watts	Sorell district high school
Mrs. Jennie Spaulding	Tasman district high school
Mrs. Judith Heath	Glenora district high school
*Mr. Nick Mason	Triabunna district high school
Mr. Michael Fahey	Bothwell district high school
Mr. Rodney Tedds	The Friends school
Brother Tom Edmonds	St. Virgil's college
Mr. Tim Doe	Elizabeth matriculation college

NORTH

*Mr. John Handy	Westbury primary school
Mr. Ewen Lefevre	Summerdale primary school
Mr. Thomas Goninon	Sheffield district high school
Mr. John Lee-Archer	Launceston community college
Mr. Paul Throssell	St. Patrick's college
Mrs. Margaret Gunton	St. Thomas Moore's
Mrs. Mary-Lynn Bishop	Sacred Heart

NORTH-WEST

Mr. Denis Jarman	Natone primary school
Mr. Ian McKay	Burnie high school
Mr. Wolfgang Stuetzel	Burnie high school
Mr. Brian Hutchinson	Penguin high school
Mr. Terry Bell	Savage River district high
Mr. Terence Flood	Marist regional college, Burnie
Mrs. Ivy Blake	Don community college.

* Case studies being completed during 1985.

Others originally involved but withdrew because of transfer to another school or for other reasons:

Mr. Gregory Peart	Rokeby high school
Mr. Tony McKenny	Woodbridge district high school
Mr. Peter Kirby	Branxholm primary school
Mrs. Gail Fisher	Mowbray primary school
Mr. Lyndon Leppard	Deloraine high school
Mr. Roger Spenser	Ridgley primary school.

CHAPTER 13

ISSUES AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This report was based on the perceptions of teachers. The issues discussed below are generally similar for Government and non-Government schools and for all types of schools and colleges.

(1)

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

During the two years of this evaluation there was much debate on the meaning of professional development. As a result of this discussion in all the schools involved in the case studies, and in many other forums, it can be concluded that teachers prefer a broad meaning to the term 'professional development'. The meaning should embrace personal growth as well as professional development, most teachers perceive these two broad aspects to be closely interrelated.

The statement adopted for this evaluation received considerable support in all schools:

'Professional development aims to increase teachers' knowledge of, understanding of, and expertise in, their professional work, through activities designed to attain this goal.'

Most teachers believe they have an obligation to their profession, to undertake continual learning. The development of teachers is viewed by most as a life-long process of learning. If the status of teaching as a profession is to be improved, we must confront the disparity between what we are doing and what we can do. Teachers and administrators should show determination to expand their knowledge and skills. Such an approach is the only way of meeting the challenges raised by a changing society, technological change, other forces impinging on the curriculum, and of serving the children we teach.

Teachers recognise that professional development is their responsibility. However, while teachers accept responsibility for their own development they generally appreciate assistance, guidance and encouragement from the principal and senior staff of the school. Other support should be provided from the Education Department or the boards of independent schools.

RECOMMENDATION

- R1. The Department should adopt the broad statement of professional development outlined above, interpreted to embrace both personal and professional growth.

(2)

CHARACTERISTICS OF SUCCESSFUL
PROFESSIONAL-DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

The evidence from evaluation suggests that some types of professional-development activities are more successful than others. It appears that strategies for implementing such activities should be varied, and include:

- . small groups;
- . large groups;
- . time for reflection by individuals and groups;
- . sharing of ideas and values of participants;
- . staff setting priorities for action;
- . developing consensus;
- . use of different time-modules; for example, pupil free days, weekend seminars or workshops, free time during a teacher's day; and
- . a thorough program for the reading of professional material.

People organising and leading these activities will need skills in areas such as:

- . interpersonal processes (facilitating);
- . communication;
- . working with groups (group dynamics);
- . team work; and
- . decision making.

In order to plan and implement more successful activities, schools should:

- . identify needs of teachers;
- . develop a school policy with guidelines and procedures;
- . state the school priorities;
- . pay attention to adult-learning characteristics;
- . use adult-learning theories;
- . use knowledge of processes to obtain change;
- . make sure the climate is supportive;
- . use knowledge of what is involved in motivation;
- . relate activities to the real problems of the practice of teaching;
- . select leaders wisely (by expertise rather than seniority);
- . create time for staff; for example, by block staff release or increasing teacher relief days; and
- . allocate resources to allow the activity to be followed up and to maintain changes in teaching practice.

A comprehensive list of staff-development practices to guide schools is available in the RPTIM model (chapter 7). This was developed after a study of the most successful school practices and examination of the literature staff development. The list examines the stages of readiness, planning, training, implementation and maintenance (the initials RPTIM represent these stages), and provides an excellent basis for planning professional-development activities and to assess what the current practices are in any school.

RECOMMENDATION

- R2. People responsible for planning professional-development activities should apply the characteristics of successful programmes and activities, and develop strategies to maximise the effectiveness of these activities.

(3)

SCHOOL POLICY

The evidence in chapter 11 shows that all schools should have a written policy on professional development. The guidelines outlined in the chapter, and our summary of experiences gained in the policy-development process in schools, and suggested short cuts, should assist schools in this task. Once the policy has been developed and a program of professional development instigated in the school, both should be vigorously evaluated. Our research shows that schools with efficient staff-development practices appeared to have achieved these tasks more successfully. In addition the literature strongly argues that the more effective schools are those which state their policy and program, develop strategies to implement them and achieve these goals.

The school policy on professional development should cater for the different needs of individual teachers and of the school. Teachers are not a uniform group and, like the students they teach, learn in different ways. Teachers have needs that arise from new roles they take in schools, because of promotion, the teaching of new subjects, or a different age-group of students. In addition, teachers vary in their needs because of the stage in their career.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- R3. All principals should develop a written policy on professional development.
- R4. A good school policy should acknowledge the different needs of individual teachers, students, the community, the Education Department, and then establish priorities for whole-school focussed activities.
- R5. School policies should be developed in consultation with superintendents or other personnel who have expertise in professional development outside the school. Each school should send a copy of their policy and professional-development program for the following year to the regional office by September of each year.

(4)

PROFESSIONAL-DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE

From our understanding of how professional-development practices work best in schools it is suggested that a professional-development committee is formed, especially in larger schools. This committee

should be given substantial and well-defined responsibilities to organise the school program. The school's goals should be clearly articulated so that the school's professional-development policy and program can be linked to those goals. The committee's tasks should include:

- (a) Developing a school policy.
- (b) Planning the professional-development program for the year, including:
 - . resources - staff and other; and
 - . activities and their objectives.
- (c) The allocation of resources to activities nominated by staff - allocation of funds and establishment of priorities.
- (d) Taking initiatives to promote professional-development activities in the school.
- (e) Overseeing and evaluating the school professional-development program.
- (f) Determining the professional-development needs of staff (and possibly ancillary staff, students and parents).
- (g) Clarifying issues related to the professional development of staff.
- (h) Seeking ways to support professional development in the school, including:
 - . additional finance and relief;
 - . recommending leaders for activities;
 - . knowledge of contributions available from the CCET, TSIT, university, curriculum development and evaluation section, regional support services, etc; and
 - . organising guest lecturers.
- (i) Disseminating information about activities through subject and general staff meetings, networking, school bulletins, etc.

The roles, responsibilities and tasks of the committee should be decided by the school principal. These may range from merely giving advice to the principal to taking a substantial and well defined responsibility for professional development. The latter would involve high levels of trust and support.

The committee, liaising closely with staff, would offer options, choice of activities, and develop strategies for achieving school goals. Individual members of the committee may have specific personal responsibilities, for example in (d) to (i) above. Principals, especially in small schools, could be part of the committee. Principals who have expertise in professional development may be a member or chairman of the committee.

RECOMMENDATION

- R6. The principal should establish a committee to be responsible for many of the tasks associated with the development of successful professional-development practices in schools.

(5)

ESTABLISHING NEEDS

In a developmental model of professional development, needs, and motivation, come essentially from teachers. Therefore, such needs as expressed by staff should form a basis for a professional-development program. In addition the needs of students, the community, priorities of the Education Department, social factors and other people may enlighten and broaden the views of teachers. All these factors should be considered when establishing the needs for a professional-development program in a school. Schools should determine needs of both the individual teacher and priorities for the whole school. Schools should encourage and extend opportunities for professional growth and promote a wide range of professional-development activities. Any program should be flexible so that one can respond to needs as they vary throughout a school year. A record should be kept of the activities and involvement of staff. (An example of one such record at Countryvale District High is included in Appendices 33 and 34).

Preferences for activities may be given to expressed needs that:

- . respond to the needs of teachers;
- . have immediate application to the classroom;
- . are based on sound theory and research;
- . are attended by teams of staff, and therefore maximising opportunities to promote 'collegiality';
- . are properly planned, have clearly stated purposes and are of high quality;
- . cross faculty (subject) boundaries in secondary schools;
- . use approaches that encourage teachers to reflect on their method of teaching (e.g. clinical supervision, action-research, classroom environment scales);
- . review and develop the school curriculum (these should generally be kept to specific 'manageable' tasks - not a total review); and
- . broaden the perceived needs of teachers.

Whole-school seminars should be carefully planned and:

- . based on the needs of teachers in the school;
- . not be imposed;
- . involve staff in organisation, development and follow-up;
- . involve expertise from outside the school. This may be as advice on planning; a consultant or the leader of a workshop;
- . should consider researched, effective staff-development practices such as the RPTIM model; and
- . choose leaders because of their expertise rather than hierarchical position.

Consideration should be given to the section on needs in the literature review (chapter 2), and to the areas of priority indicated in chapter 10.

General areas of the curriculum and teaching methods were often mentioned as needs during the school case-studies. Care should be taken to identify precisely the focus within the school, and to plan activities to achieve this. Aspects of the curriculum often mentioned as priorities in schools included:

- . curriculum policies;
- . curriculum review;
- . processes of curriculum development;
- . revision of content or subject areas;
- . teaching methodology;
- . curriculum trends (futures);
- . philosophy and objectives;
- . specialist needs;
- . assessment/diagnostic testing;
- . skills of communication, writing, thinking, calculating;
- . communication over whole-school (between subject departments);
- . interpersonal processes; and
- . integration of subjects (thematic approaches).

Aspects of the craft of teaching often mentioned as needs were:

- . evaluating current practice;
- . handling problem (disruptive) children;
- . behaviour management;
- . motivating children;
- . raising self-esteem;
- . catering for children with different abilities;
- . classroom management;
- . specific teaching skills; and
- . interpersonal skills.

Strategies suggested for examining the craft of teaching included:

- . peer supervision (clinical supervision);
- . analysis of classroom environment;
- . use of outsiders, especially consultants;
- . planned continuous activities (not 'one-off' events);
- . use of relief-teacher days;
- . tackling one or a limited number of areas at any time;
- . keeping the area of improving teaching practice as an in-service priority within the school;
- . the allocation of money for professional development;
- . the use of outsiders to assist teachers (process consultants);
- . maintaining a positive climate, and emphasis on teacher growth among staff;
- . involving all teachers and administrators in the school; and
- . use a wide variety of techniques and provide for choice by teachers.

RECOMMENDATION

- R7. The principal should assess the needs of both teachers and the school as a basis for planning a professional-development program.

(6)

SCHOOL SUPPORT MECHANISMS

There are numerous ways in which schools can support professional development. Those responsible for organising the support in schools should ensure that it is provided to teachers as equally as possible regardless of age, sex or status.

(i) LEADERSHIP

The responsibility for leadership is a corporate one and involves all senior staff. Much has been said about leadership in chapters of this report and especially on pages 37 to 41 and 212 to 216. It is an essential aspect of good professional-development programs.

In secondary schools, the senior master/mistress is considered by staff as a key source of new ideas and sound teaching practice. An enlightened and energetic senior master/mistress is viewed by teachers as the most important member of the staff of a high school. Often the principal in a larger school is cast into an administrative role. However, the role is still the key one in the development of a school climate as it is the principal who allows things to happen.

Every opportunity should be taken, particularly by senior staff and the professional-development committee, to promote the view that involvement in professional-development activities is an essential ingredient for professional growth. Teachers, by their choice of profession, are usually committed to a life-long process of learning.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- R8. The principal should focus on obtaining a good school climate conducive to experimentation, implementation and maintenance of changes for the better, in both teachers' outlook and practices. This should be periodically assessed, encouraged and supported.
- R9. The leadership team at the school should promote professional development as a worthwhile concept for teachers, and demonstrate such values by involvement in their own professional development - that is, to model their beliefs.

(ii) FUNDING

Expenditure on professional development should reflect its priority in the school. Expenditure of 0.5% to 1% of recurrent salaries does not reflect a high priority.

In large, secondary Government and non-Government schools the pressures of work are perceived to be exceptionally high. It is an anomaly that most secondary recurrent funds in Government schools are

spent in the provision of teacher aides to reduce pressure on teachers. If more funds for relief teachers are to be provided for professional development, it will probably come about by a reduction in the number of hours available for teacher aides, thus increasing teachers' work-pressure. Some schools are tapping other sources such as parents and friends associations. Donations from parents and friends associations generally tend to be spent on tangible items such as equipment, musical instruments and library resources.

Some schools help teachers to attend professional-development activities by providing funds for travel and accommodation.

Schools that were more successful in the staff-development practices survey also allocated funds for the implementation and maintenance stages of professional development. That is, all funding did not support seminars. Some was held back to support teachers who were trying out ideas and developing new practices.

RECOMMENDATION

R10. The principal should provide adequate funding for professional-development activities, and to support and maintain improved teaching practices.

(iii) LIBRARY

School libraries in most schools are poorly used by teachers. This appears to be partly due to both the quality and quantity of professional reading material. Where the libraries are well used, most staff see them as a great help. Obviously better methods of co-ordination and circulation of journals are required. Teachers generally appreciate a summary (no more than one page) of new books, journals or current issues.

In larger schools, the task of co-ordinating and consulting with the librarian should be a responsibility of the subject heading; or section-head of the school. They should be responsible for the needs of their staff. Some schools hold meetings on subjects in the library when there is a display of materials and professional-reading matter.

The cost and desirability of provision of new materials should be considered, especially when they are poorly used. As well, the location of the professional library should be negotiated to maximise the opportunity for staff use. In some libraries there is a professional-reading section, with displays of new materials or a special shelf in the staffroom. The case studies demonstrated that nothing can replace a helpful librarian who was in tune with the needs of staff and understood the practices of staff in their reading and availability of reading time. In one school the librarian provides lists of all subject materials to the senior master/mistress, whose duty is to cull, bring up to date and broaden the range of these materials.

RECOMMENDATION

- R11. The principal should give careful consideration should be given to the provision of professional-development reading materials and librarian services.

(iv) TIME

This is a major issue in all schools. Teaching is a demanding profession and can leave teachers tired at the end of a school day. High-school teachers said the task of teaching is especially difficult (see pages 270-71). Our work on school climates also strongly reinforced this view. It is, therefore, regarded by some teachers as a major effort to take on more things such as professional development. Most teachers believe more professional development should be done in school-time, and that allowances of time for this task should be provided, if indeed it is a priority.

Most teachers believe a school can create a flexible staffing system in order to free some staff sometimes. Such flexibility should be sought. A number of schools believe a common time (say one hour a week) should be set aside on the timetable when all staff were available to meet. The general view was that this time should be used for the professional growth of staff (staff issues). It should not be a time when staff were lectured. Most teachers regarded the traditional staff meeting - at which the principal lectured staff - as generally a waste of time.

A minority of teachers suggested the use of school holiday time for professional development, although many schools ran successful programs at weekends, school holidays, or after school and into the evening. Considering the teaching day ends around 3 p.m., it would seem reasonable that some use of the time after the teaching day, or some of the twelve weeks of school holidays, could be spent on whole-school professional-development activities. Some teachers suggested a fading teaching certificate which would ensure continual credit was obtained for a teacher's personal and professional development.

RECOMMENDATION

- R12. The principal should create learning time for staff both in and/or outside normal school working hours, for consideration of whole-school focussed professional-development activities.

(v) ORIENTATION PROGRAM FOR NEW STAFF

This should be considered as most important for all new members of staff, and should include:

- . day-to-day running of the school;
- . a thorough introduction to subjects;
- . school requirements on class control; and
- . encouragement to take part in professional-development activities.

Educators in the case studies often reported that new teachers felt they 'knew it all', or were filled with 'theory' and wanted more 'practice'. Young teachers could assist all staff in presenting new theory, skills and ideas for teaching and, in turn, they may well gain practical ideas from experienced teachers. They suggested their greatest needs were skills in classroom management, and practical subject- or teaching-skills.

RECOMMENDATION

R13. The principal should prepare an orientation program for all new members of a staff.

(vi) TYPING, PHOTOCOPYING, TRAVEL AND ACCOMMODATION

Some, but not all schools support teachers in all these areas. Other schools provide support where they decide to use such resources and allow such assistance. The school policy should state what assistance the school will provide.

(vii) SUPPORTING INDIVIDUALS STUDYING WITH OUTSIDE ORGANISATIONS AFTER SCHOOL HOURS

There can be no doubt of the additional demands placed on teachers who undertake study after school; for instance in tertiary courses. Our research shows that nearly 90% of teachers use the knowledge and skills gained from this study in their teaching or school tasks. Besides the time involved with other teachers in classes, week after week during the school year, there is the additional burden of a large amount of work in reading and assignments. For some teachers, this is a joy - a chance to mix with adults, and a refreshment for cerebral cells. However, for other teachers who are tired, it is just hard work. The latter group does it only to keep up with new ideas, improve performances in class or to gain additional qualifications.

Teachers can be supported in a number of ways. Often this may be achieved by those teachers being given some compensation from other duties or responsibilities, such as involvement in extra-curricular activities or in supervision of sport. Others may want encouragement, support or recognition. The opportunity to talk to other teachers about their study and its implications to teaching, a little money to buy a few books to start a new classroom scheme, or just a few warm words of encouragement for the teacher, are just some of many ways by which senior staff can support staff and recognise their effort.

RECOMMENDATION

R14. The principal should wherever possible support teachers who wish to study outside school hours.

(viii) REPORTING BACK TO STAFF

More time should be allocated to encouraging staff to report back on successful professional-development activities. This could take the format of a lecture, workshop for staff, a demonstration lesson, or a brief chat with interested staff over a cup of coffee. This constant networking of the beliefs and ideas of teachers, appears to be of utmost value to good staff-development practices.

RECOMMENDATION

R15. The principal should encourage staff to report their achievements in professional-development activities.

(7) OBTAINING THE RIGHT SCHOOL CLIMATE

This is a responsibility of the principal. The importance of school climate to staff-development practices is shown in the chapters:

- 2 - Literature review;
- 6 - School climate;
- 7 - The RPTIM model;
- 8 - The link between school climate and staff practices;
- 9 - The case study questions; and
- 12 - Strategies for school improvement.

Lightfoot (see page 48) said that her portraits of good schools all reveal imperfections, uncertainties, and vulnerabilities. She suggests that a consciousness about imperfections, and a willingness to admit them and search for their origins and solutions, is one of the important ingredients of goodness in schools. Lightfoot argues for a definition of good schools that sees them whole, changing and imperfect. It is in the articulation and confronting each of these dimensions that one moves closer and closer to the institutional supports of good education. The concept of school climate is raised by most authors reviewing 'good' or 'effective schools', and is seen as an essential element of study by most authors of texts on management or administration.

Sergiovanni and Starrat (see page 43) point out the importance of the emphasis on school climate in that a healthy climate frees administrators and teachers to work more fully on educational matters. They refer to the fact that many administrators do not like to be cast into a leadership role which requires them to give attention to school climate. Instead, they prefer to devote full attention to what they feel really matters - educational program and students. Sergiovanni and Starrat believe this concern is commendable, and indeed educational and instructional roles of supervision are most important. But administrators will have a difficult time exercising this leadership without a sufficient supportive climate within which to work. Further, excluding or neglecting school climate in favour of educational tasks can limit the total amount of leadership talent available in the school.

The school climate is always altering. Schools are complex human enterprises which, day by day, deal with real people and real issues. It is essential to achieve a healthy school climate in which teachers can work on their major task of teaching children. This search for a healthy climate will be continuous. The principal should see the development of a supportive climate as a personal responsibility, or may allocate specific aspects of the task to working parties of staff members. Details of general strategies for improving the school climate are outlined in chapter 12. The authors are convinced that improvement in the school climate will not only affect staff practices but also improve the learning outcomes in pupils.

The authors believe that the school climate is also affected by the following types of professional-development activities which promote:

- . a greater sharing of ideas;
- . greater interaction between and involvement of staff;
- . establishment of better mechanisms to support staff;
- . improvement of teaching or teaching strategies;
- . greater understanding by teachers of issues in education;
- . development of more autonomy in teachers; and
- . new ideas and skills in teaching.

The possible benefits of these types of professional-development activities appear to be reflected by:

- . increased pupil learning; and
- . greater interest from students.

RECOMMENDATION

R16. Principals should develop strategies to monitor and improve school climate.

(8)

RELIEF TEACHERS

This is undoubtedly the most contentious issue about professional development in most schools. This situation is obviously exacerbated in high schools (grades 7 to 10) where the provision of relief days is lowest, the perceived work pressure on staff highest and the difficulty in obtaining relief teachers for specialist subjects is greatest.

However, if a school believes that professional development is important then teachers should not be made to feel guilty if there are no relief teachers when they attend activities. Staff should not feel that involvement in professional development often means extra work, through supervision, for their colleagues. In addition, they should not be expected in an ideal situation to have to prepare lessons for the time out of school and complete all the marking on their return, as well as carrying out their normal work. In fact, there could be no quicker way to kill the spirit necessary for the achievement of good professional development. Most secondary-school teachers already complain of the number of supervision lessons given to staff because of staff illness and activities such as school camps.

Provision of relief days indicates how seriously the school and the department take professional development. Schools should use their departmental allowance plus whatever else is necessary. The relief days should be set aside and used for bona fide professional-development activities. Teachers from some schools completing case studies were arguing this issue at staff meetings in 1984 and found out that they still had not used allocated relief in the school. This was said to have created unnecessary stress on colleagues, with the result that a more open system of accounting for relief days was developed. As well, most teachers attending professional-development activities where no relief was provided were asked to do so through the principal or professional-development committee.

Some high and district-high schools have found the use of relief teachers to be counter-productive or inefficient, and have a policy to use relief only for sickness. Other schools reported that teachers are accepting some degree of supervision duties, provided the opportunity to attend professional-development activities was fairly distributed around the staff.

Sometimes the principal said teachers could go to activities, but the vice-principal responsible for arranging the supervisions was reluctant to agree. The vice-principals were responsible for instigating a worthwhile program for students who were left without a teacher, and they were often reported as being reluctant to allow teachers out of school due to the disruption to the school program. Thus, the teacher received dual messages as to the importance of professional development.

Planning ahead was often deemed better than relief. Some schools developed ingenious ways of covering the shortfall in teachers. One school had a 'cut and shut' policy. It would pick a teacher and attach a group of students with their work pre-set. While some teachers such as those in science and typing classes would miss out, other staff did not worry too much about the perceived inequality. One high school shut down at 1.30 p.m. for a school seminar, provided tea, and worked through to 10 p.m. Other schools covered teachers at activities by grade system or team-teaching co-operation. These examples indicate what can be done under existing constraints.

Supervision rosters where teachers are allocated priorities 1, 2, 3 etc. for each timetable period - the so called 'S roster' - was considered by teachers as having some inequalities. Some schools used this or other types of roster and dressed it up with a raffle for a chicken or bottle of champagne each week. That is, all teachers doing supervisions placed their name in a supervision box. The winner of the raffle was drawn on Friday afternoon. Obviously there is no perfect solution, and teachers may well have to select the best of poor options if professional development of staff is viewed as important and necessary to improve the quality of teaching and education of children.

The 'no relief - no go' policy of some schools was viewed by teachers as appalling and an example of tunnel vision at best.

RECOMMENDATION

- R17. School principals should consider a number of options before deciding on the best way to cover staff who attend professional-development activities.

WHAT THE SYSTEM CAN DO

(9)

WHITE PAPER RECOMMENDATIONS

A great deal of interest and debate on professional development was created in the teaching profession by the recommendations of the White Paper. The Education Department should reconfirm to teachers its belief in the White Paper recommendations 62-68 restated below:

62. In future all members of the teaching service, from the most senior of administrators to the youngest of teachers, will have to show from time to time that, besides doing their usual work, they have taken part in some activity that is likely to improve their general and professional knowledge and skills (paragraph 3.26).
63. The Government will expand the role of the CCET during the 1980s by having it introduce shorter courses and inform teachers of important new developments in educational practice (paragraph 3.17.1).
64. The Government believes that more in-service activities should take place after school hours and vacations. It will do all it can to ensure that every teacher has the opportunity to participate in at least five days of in-service education outside school hours every year (paragraph 3.21).
65. The Government will allow some teachers, especially those who have to be retrained, to attend courses during school hours, and it will provide relief teachers in their absence (paragraph 3.27; see also 3.23).
66. The Government will give members of the teaching service the chance to retrain by offering them:
 - . full-time training courses up to a year in length;
 - . full-time courses of about a term in length;
 - . courses which members of the teaching service can attend part-time while they continue their ordinary work; and
 - . a very short full-time course followed by further part-time study (paragraph 3.28).
67. The Government will increase the number of scholarships it awards each year to members of the teaching service (paragraphs 3.28).
68. The Government will set up a planning committee for all the school support-services, including in-service education. A special function of the committee will be to plan programs for retraining teachers when necessary (paragraph 3.29).

RECOMMENDATION

R18. The Education Department should reconfirm its belief in the White Paper recommendations 62-68.

(10) PERCEIVED INEQUALITIES IN PROVISION OF SUPPORT

From the evidence in this evaluation, the current provision of relief-teacher days to high school (grades 7 to 10) is inadequate. This issue has been discussed previously in this chapter and in a number of preceding chapters.

RECOMMENDATION

R19. The department should examine the inequalities in the provision of support for professional-development activities in different schools (primary, high, district-high, secondary colleges), taking into account work pressures, pupil-contact time, relief-teacher provisions and funds available to schools for this purpose.

(11) PROFESSIONAL-DEVELOPMENT PUBLICATIONS

Teachers would be helped in their selection of appropriate professional-development activities if the following procedures were adopted:

- . a concise and clear statement of the purposes of activities;
- . processes (methodology) to be used, and information about the leaders of the activities; and
- . the format of the program should consider the needs of those attending and, where possible, the contents should be negotiated with the group before or at the beginning of the activity.

RECOMMENDATION

R20. Officers responsible for professional-development publications should advertise activities and state the purpose of the activity, methodology to be used, and name of the leader. The needs of participants should be taken into account when organising a program.

(12) OBTAINING NEEDS OF TEACHERS AND SCHOOLS

Staff involved in professional-development activities - regional-development officers, teachers' centre personnel, staff-development section staff - should develop strategies for the

networking of schools. Such strategies would establish the needs of schools and formulate methods of collating the needs so that the system as a whole may respond. If each officer had responsibility for less than 10 schools, and also provided consultancy and resource advice, all schools in Tasmania could be easily contacted and their needs documented.

RECOMMENDATION

- R21. The superintendent, staff-development section, should develop a system to allow the continual assessment of the needs of teachers and schools, and to determine a priority for professional-development activities and to allocate resources accordingly.

(13)

STAFF-DEVELOPMENT OFFICERS

All those involved with provision of staff-development activities - consultants, regional-development officers, members of staff development, curriculum development and evaluation and learning-resource sections, supervisors and superintendents - should discuss the characteristics of good professional-development activities and practices and develop a means of sharing their considerable experience and expertise.

RECOMMENDATION

- R22. The superintendent, staff-development section, should make provision for those involved in providing professional-development activities to meet and discuss successful activities and practices.

(14)

INEQUALITIES OF OPPORTUNITY FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF STAFF IN COUNTRY AND ISOLATED SCHOOLS

Particular problems cited by teachers in country and isolated schools were:

- . difficulty of obtaining relief teachers or specialist-subject relief teachers;
- . distance (and cost) from metropolitan centres;
- . time taken to travel from school to the activity and return home late at night;
- . isolation from resource people and those with particular expertise; and
- . isolation from teachers in other schools (professional and cultural isolation); difficulty of exchanging ideas, etc.

Consideration (and recognition) may be given in isolated class D and some country schools to matters such as:

- . increasing relief days from five to 10 days for each isolated or small country schools;
- . principals being given contract appointments (say three years for isolated schools and four years for country schools) with preferential treatment for appointments in metropolitan areas at the end of this time, if requested;
- . regional offices develop a small task force of some teachers to do relief in isolated schools; and
- . opportunities for staff to meet on an informal basis and discuss common problems.

Increase of funds or relief days should be marked specifically for professional-development activities, and should not be used at the discretion of the principal.

RECOMMENDATION

- R23. The Department should examine perceived inequalities in opportunities to take part in professional-development activities and provide appropriate activities in some country and isolated schools.

(15) FOCUS FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The Department has a responsibility to provide professional development to cater for the needs of:

- . individual teachers;
- . professional associations;
- . schools; and
- . the system.

Professional development includes curriculum development, senior staff development, teacher training and organisational (school) development. All are aimed at improving student learning. As such, the most appropriate unit for focus and change is the school. It is in schools that teachers teach children. They are the experts in teaching. The Department should encourage the growth of professionalism of teachers and progressively give schools the power, money and responsibility to develop their staff.

In turn, the Department should expect schools to establish a policy and program for staff development, discuss their needs, plans and program with outsiders, develop staff-development practices and whole-school improvement programs, and to be accountable for their policy through regional offices.

RECOMMENDATION

- R24. The Department should consider the school as the most appropriate unit of focus to improve teaching and school staff-development practices.

(16)

CONSULTANTS

Consultants should provide activities related to the needs of teachers, especially concerning areas of teaching practice. There is a dilemma here for consultants as teachers tend to want ideas or resources that they can use in the classroom next day. Activities provided by consultants then may be part of a band-aid approach, with no real change evident once the ideas are used up in a teacher's philosophy, attitude or practice. Consultants should pay a great deal of attention to country schools and those in isolated locations where their services are generally much appreciated. Attention should also be given to follow-up activities.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- R25. Consultants should provide professional-development activities related to the needs of teachers, especially in areas concerning teaching practice.
- R26. Consultants should be given time to discuss successful staff-development practices, to be trained in negotiation, process-consultant and group facilitation skills.

(17)

ENLIGHTENED STAFF PRACTICES

The department should investigate developing new strategies (options) to enable teachers to take leave in order to complete studies. Enlightened staff-practices in this area would be appreciated by teachers. Such options could include variations in both salary and time at school. One often mentioned option was that of a teacher being paid four-fifths of their salary a year over five years. The teacher works four years and has the fifth year off for personal or professional development.

RECOMMENDATION

- R27. The Department should investigate options and strategies to allow teachers more alternatives in determining how they can obtain time out of teaching for personal and professional growth.

(18)

THE CCET

The CCET should:

- (i) Continue to develop present year-long courses to upgrade qualifications according to the needs of teachers.
- (ii) Continue to develop the present senior-staff program.
- (iii) Introduce short-term courses and seminars, initially in areas of perceived high need by teachers or the department.

- (iv) Develop consultancy skills in personnel to help schools develop staff-development processes in areas such as:
- . school climate;
 - . school evaluation;
 - . approaches to assist teachers to reflect on the craft of teaching, e.g. action research, classroom environment;
 - . staff-development practices;
 - . leadership;
 - . school management; and
 - . curriculum issues.
- (v) Consult in the planning of departmental conferences.
- (vi) Develop special provisions for the following groups of teachers:
- . non-full-time teachers; and
 - . those studying by distance.
- (vii) Develop a 'refresher' course focussing on the practice of teaching. This could be an award-bearing program linked to an existing subject, or part of a subject to be developed, e.g. 'studies in effective teaching'. It could be a non-award subject or, alternatively, a number of three-point modules could be developed to assist school-based staff development in such areas as:
- . the study of classrooms;
 - . co-operative learning in classrooms;
 - . the study of the practice of teaching; and
 - . unitisation of the curriculum.
- Such units could also be developed within the senior staff-development program, and offered in schools as staff-development activities to assist the work of schools.
- (viii) Develop an orientation package for new CCET students. This would include such things as presentation of assignments, and use of the library.
- (ix) Release expectation-achievement summaries to relevant lecturers and co-ordinators of those subjects.
- (x) Develop strategies to attract the following groups of teachers to CCET studies:
- . young graduate teachers; and
 - . those with a degree and diploma of education.
- (xi) Develop strategies to:
- . market CCET studies at both bachelor and master of education levels, foremost as a professional-development exercise;

- . encourage support of schools and principals to assist teachers studying CCET subjects; and
- . assist in offering more school-based studies.

The CCET executive should:

(xii) Consider organising seminars for TSIT and UCE lecturers to examine:

- . different time-modules for courses;
- . methodology for teaching courses (considering the characteristics of adult learners);
- . closing the theory-to-practice gap;
- . support to teachers
 - assignments;
 - library.

This may consist of small groups (10 to 12) of UCE and TSIT lecturers attending seminars to discuss items such as the above. Some ex-students may also attend. The suggested time would be February to April 1986.

(xiii) Develop strategies to communicate the very positive results of CCET subjects and their effect on teachers to the policy and decision makers (Federal, State, Education Department, TCET, tertiary institutions, schools etc.). This should include key features of the CCET and a summary of the very positive research findings.

(xiv) Recommend a continuation of the status quo in respect to the education project. The executive should develop strategies to further improve the 'experience' for teachers.

RECOMMENDATION

R28. That the Department fund and staff the CCET to support the above initiatives and program maintenance.

SOME GUIDELINES FOR IMPLEMENTATION

The recommendations have been written in specific terms and the person responsible for implementing each recommendation is usually named. However, for implementation to occur a systematic plan is needed which is both coherent and co-ordinated.

This section is written on the assumption that most of the recommendations will prove to be acceptable. Modifications could be made if this is not the case.

Most of the recommendations are directed at schools and it is on them that the burden of implementation will largely fall. In doing this we recognise that schools are already busy places. The immediate and inescapable demands take up most, if not all, the time and energy of teachers, who also have their own developments and plans for the future. This is reinforced by our study on teachers' perceptions of work pressure in various types of schools. Teachers in high schools consistently perceived themselves to be under high pressure and it would appear that these recommendations may create additional strain. Some schools may find that they can only embark on a small selection of the recommendations. This is particularly important in view of the Department priority in changing or restructuring the secondary curriculum which in itself is a massive staff development exercise.

However, schools are at quite different starting points in relation to these recommendations. It is evident to the authors from our studies in schools that in a number of cases we are preaching to the converted; in other cases the schools have done little or nothing in relation to those recommendations. The time and resources needed to implement the recommendations differ enormously from school to school.

In the view of the authors this is a good thing. We also believe it would be mistaken for all schools to seek to implement all the recommendations simultaneously, even if that were feasible. Such a program of implementation would prevent schools from learning from one another. Mistakes might be made on a huge scale, with little opportunity to profit from experience.

It is in the light of these considerations that it seems sensible to plan for implementation, and that such a plan recognises the autonomy of each individual school.

Considering these factors we suggest the following:

- . All schools should assign the highest priority to the development or improvement of a policy for staff development, not least because a teaching force of quality combined with high morale is the essential basis of a program of school improvement. We recommend that action be taken by principals and schools on this issue at the earliest opportunity.
- . That all schools should develop a policy and program of professional development within three years. By September of each

year, schools should lodge their policy and program with regional offices. This is a line of accountability from schools to regional offices.

- . That the superintendent, Staff Development Section, take the functional responsibility for examining these policies and programs and co-ordinating resources on a state-wide basis. Obviously, schools will need to choose, in part, from the professional development activities available from the maze of consultants, experts, lecturers and activities offered by the Department and other agencies. It is important that schools know what is in the shop window. Also from time to time the Superintendent will need to place in other items and provide resources for the same. This will require a great deal of negotiation with people in schools and people outside schools with responsibilities in the area of professional development.
- . It would appear essential that both line and functional responsibilities are clarified to assist implementation of these recommendations and for the development of a coherent and co-ordinated program of professional development catering for the needs of interested parties in Tasmania.

RECOMMENDATIONS - A SUMMARY

- R1. The Department should adopt the broad statement of professional development outlined above, interpreted to embrace both personal and professional growth.
- R2. People responsible for planning professional-development activities should apply the characteristics of successful programmes and activities, and develop strategies to maximise the effectiveness of these activities.
- R3. All principals should develop a written policy on professional development.
- R4. A good school policy should acknowledge the different needs of individual teachers, students, the community, the Education Department, and then establish priorities for whole-school focussed activities.
- R5. School policies should be developed in consultation with superintendents or other personnel who have expertise in professional development outside the school. Each school should send a copy of their policy and professional-development program for the following year to the regional office by September of each year.
- R6. The school principal should establish a committee to be responsible for many of the tasks associated with the development of successful professional-development practices in schools.
- R7. The principal should assess the needs of both teachers and the school as a basis for planning a professional-development program.
- R8. The principal should focus on obtaining a good school climate conducive to experimentation, implementation and maintenance of changes for the better, in both teachers' outlook and practices. This should be periodically assessed, encouraged and supported.
- R9. The leadership team at a school should promote professional development as a worthwhile concept for teachers, and demonstrate such values by involvement in their own professional development - that is, to model their beliefs.
- R10. The principal should provide adequate funding for professional-development activities, and to support and maintain improved teaching practices.
- R11. The principal should give careful consideration to the provision of professional-development reading materials and librarian services.
- R12. The principal should create learning time for staff both in and/or outside normal school working hours, for consideration of whole-school focussed professional-development activities.

- R13. The principal should prepare an orientation program for all new members of a staff.
- R14. The principal should wherever possible support teachers who wish to study outside school hours.
- R15. The principal should encourage staff to report their achievements in professional-development activities.
- R16. Principals should develop strategies to monitor and improve the school climate.
- R17. School principals should consider a number of options before deciding on the best way to cover staff who attend professional-development activities.
- R18. The Education Department should reconfirm its belief in the White Paper recommendations 62-68.
- R19. The department should examine the inequalities in the provision of support for professional-development activities in different schools (primary, high, district-high, secondary colleges), taking into account work pressures, pupil-contact time, relief-teacher provisions and funds available to schools for this purpose.
- R20. Officers responsible for professional-development publications should advertise activities and state the purpose of the activity, methodology to be used, and name of the leader. The needs of participants should be taken into account when organising a program.
- R21. The superintendent, staff-development section, should develop a system to allow the continual assessment of the needs of teachers and schools, and to determine a priority for professional-development activities and to allocate resources accordingly.
- R22. The superintendent, staff-development section, should make provision for those involved in providing professional-development activities to meet and discuss successful activities and practices.
- R23. The Department should examine perceived inequalities in opportunities to take part in professional-development activities, and provide appropriate activities in some country and isolated schools.
- R24. The Department should consider the school as the most appropriate unit of focus to improve teaching and school staff-development practices.
- R25. Consultants should provide professional-development activities related to the needs of teachers, especially in areas concerning teaching practice.

- R26. Consultants should be given time to discuss successful staff - development practices, to be trained in negotiation, process-consultant and group facilitation skills.
- R27. The Department should investigate options and strategies to allow teachers more alternatives in determining how they can obtain time out of teaching for personal and professional growth.
- R28. That the Department fund and staff the CCET to support the above initiatives and program maintenance.

appendix 4

WES - GROUPS OF QUESTIONS IN SUB-SCALES

Areas examined in the WES together with questions related to those areas are as follows:

Involvement - The extent to which teachers are concerned and committed to their jobs:

Q.

- | | | |
|-----|---|---|
| 1. | The work is really challenging. | + |
| 11. | There's not much group spirit among teachers. | - |
| 21. | A lot of teachers seem to be just putting in time. | - |
| 31. | Teachers seem to take pride in the school. | + |
| 41. | Teachers put quite a lot of effort into what they do. | + |
| 51. | Few teachers ever volunteer. | - |
| 61. | It is quite a lively place. | + |
| 71. | It's hard to get teachers to do any extra work. | - |
| 81. | The work is usually very interesting. | + |

Peer Cohesion - The extent to which teachers are friendly and supportive of each other:

Q.

- | | | |
|-----|--|---|
| 2. | Teachers go out of their way to help a new teacher feel comfortable. | + |
| 12. | The atmosphere in the school is somewhat impersonal. | - |
| 22. | Teachers take a personal interest in each other. | + |
| 32. | Teachers rarely do things together after school. | - |
| 42. | Teachers are generally frank about how they feel. | + |
| 52. | Teachers often eat lunch together. | + |
| 62. | Teachers who differ greatly from the others in the school don't get on well. | - |
| 72. | Teachers often talk to each other about their personal problems. | + |
| 82. | Often some teachers make trouble by talking behind others' | - |

Staff Support - The extent to which the senior staff is supportive of teachers and encourages teachers to be supportive of each other:

- Q.
- | | | |
|-----|---|---|
| 3. | Senior staff tend to talk down to teachers. | - |
| 13. | In general senior staff usually compliment a teacher who does something well. | + |
| 23. | In general senior staff tend to discourage criticisms from teachers. | |
| 33. | Senior staff usually give full credit to ideas contributed by teachers. | + |
| 43. | Senior staff often criticise teachers over minor things. | - |
| 53. | Teachers generally feel free to ask for assistance from other staff. | + |
| 63. | Senior staff expect far too much from teachers. | - |
| 73. | Teachers discuss their personal problems with senior staff. | + |
| 83. | Senior staff really stand up for their teachers. | + |

Autonomy - The extent to which teachers are encouraged to be self-sufficient and to make their own decisions:

- Q.
- | | | |
|-----|---|---|
| 4. | Few teachers have any important responsibilities. | - |
| 14. | Teachers have a great deal of freedom to do as they like. | + |
| 24. | Teachers are encouraged to make their own decisions. | + |
| 34. | Teachers can use their own initiative to do things. | + |
| 44. | Senior staff encourage teachers to rely on themselves when a problem arises. | + |
| 54. | Teachers generally do not try to be unique and different. | - |
| 64. | Teachers are encouraged to learn things even if they are not directly related to the job. | + |
| 74. | Teachers function fairly independently of senior staff. | + |
| 84. | Senior staff meet with teachers regularly to discuss their future work goals. | + |

Task Orientation - The extent to which the climate emphasis good planning, efficiency and encourages teachers to "get the job done".

Q.

- | | | |
|-----|---|---|
| 5. | Teachers pay a lot of attention to getting work done. | + |
| 15. | There's a lot of time wasted because of inefficiencies. | - |
| 25. | Things rarely get "put off till tomorrow". | + |
| 35. | This is a highly efficient, work-oriented place. | + |
| 45. | Getting a lot of work done is important to teachers. | + |
| 55. | There's an emphasis on "work before play". | + |
| 65. | Teachers work very hard. | + |
| 75. | The staff seems to be quite inefficient. | - |
| 85. | There's a tendency for the staff to come to work late. | - |

Work Pressure - The extent to which the press of work dominates the job milieu:

Q.

- | | | |
|-----|--|---|
| 6. | There is constant pressure to keep working. | + |
| 16. | There always seems to be an urgency about everything. | + |
| 26. | Teachers cannot afford to relax. | + |
| 36. | The staff doesn't work too hard. | - |
| 46. | There is no time pressure. | - |
| 56. | It is very hard to keep up with your work load. | + |
| 66. | You can take it easy and still get your work done. | - |
| 76. | There are always deadlines to be met. | + |
| 86. | Teachers often have to work long hours to get their work done. | + |

Clarity - The extent to which teachers know what to expect in their daily routines and how explicitly rules and policies are communicated:

Q.

- | | | |
|-----|---|---|
| 7. | Things are sometimes pretty disorganised. | - |
| 17. | Activities are well planned. | + |
| 27. | Rules and regulations are somewhat vague and ambiguous. | - |
| 37. | The responsibilities of senior masters are clearly defined. | + |
| 47. | The details of assigned jobs are generally explained to teachers. | + |
| 57. | Teachers are often confused about exactly what they are supposed to do. | - |

- | | | |
|------|---|---|
| 67.. | The fringe benefits of the profession are fully explained to teachers. | + |
| 77. | Rules and policies are constantly changing. | - |
| 87. | Senior staff and the school administration encourage teachers to be neat and orderly. | + |

Control - The extent to which the school administration uses rules and pressures to keep teachers under control:

- | | | |
|-----|---|---|
| 8. | There's a strict emphasis on following policies and regulations. | + |
| 18. | Teachers can wear wild clothing if they want. | - |
| 28. | Teachers are expected to follow set rules in doing their work. | + |
| 38. | Senior staff keep a rather close watch on teachers. | + |
| 48. | Rules and regulations are pretty well enforced. | + |
| 58. | Senior staff are always checking on teachers and supervise them very closely. | + |
| 68. | The school administration does not often give in to teacher pressure. | + |
| 78. | Teachers are expected to conform rather strictly to the rules and customs. | + |
| 88. | There are no firm rules about teacher punctuality. | - |

Innovation - The extent to which variety, change, and new approaches are emphasised in the school:

- | | | |
|-----|--|---|
| 9. | Doing things in a different way is valued. | + |
| 19. | New and different ideas are always being tried out. | + |
| 29. | This place would be the first to try out a new idea. | + |
| 39. | Variety and change are not particularly important. | - |
| 49. | The same methods have been used for quite a long time. | - |
| 59. | New approaches to things are rarely tried. | - |
| 69. | Things tend to stay just about the same. | - |
| 79. | There is a fresh, novel atmosphere about the place. | + |
| 89. | Things always seem to be changing. | + |

Physical Comfort - The extent to which the physical surroundings
contribute to a pleasant work environment:

- | | | |
|-----|--|---|
| 10. | The rooms sometimes get too hot. | - |
| 20. | The lighting is extremely good. | + |
| 30. | Work space is awfully crowded. | - |
| 40. | This place has a stylish and modern appearance. | + |
| 50. | The place could stand some new interior decorations. | - |
| 60. | The colours and decorations make the place warm and cheerful to work in. | + |
| 70. | The rooms are rather draughty at times. | - |
| 80. | The furniture is usually well arranged. | + |
| 90. | The rooms are well ventilated. | + |

appendix 5

WES - ACTUAL FORM OF SURVEY

WORK ENVIRONMENT SCALE

INSTRUCTIONS

A C T U A L

There are 90 statements in this questionnaire. They are statements about the school in which you work.

You are to decide which statements are true of your work environment and which are false. Make all your marks on the separate answer sheet.

If you think the statement is TRUE or mostly TRUE of your work environment, put a circle around TRUE on your response sheet.

If you think the statement is FALSE or mostly FALSE of your work environment, then circle FALSE on the response sheet.

Please answer every statement.

-
1. The work is really challenging.
 2. Teachers go out of their way to help a new teacher feel comfortable.
 3. Senior staff tend to talk down to teachers.
 4. Few teachers have any important responsibilities.
 5. Teachers pay a lot of attention to getting work done.
 6. There is constant pressure to keep working.
 7. Things are sometimes pretty disorganized.
 8. There's a strict emphasis on following policies and regulations.
 9. Doing things in a different way is valued.
 10. The rooms sometimes get too hot.
 11. There's not much group spirit among teachers.
 12. The atmosphere in the school is somewhat impersonal.
 13. In general senior staff usually compliment a teacher who does something well.
 14. Teachers have a good deal of freedom to do as they like.
 15. There's a lot of time wasted because of inefficiencies.
 16. There always seems to be an urgency about everything.
 17. Activities are well planned.

18. Teachers can wear wild looking clothing if they want.
19. New and different ideas are always being tried out.
20. The lighting is extremely good.
21. A lot of teachers seem to be just putting in time.
22. Teachers take a personal interest in each other.
23. In general senior staff tend to discourage criticisms from teachers.
24. Teachers are encouraged to make their own decisions.
25. Things rarely get "put off till tomorrow".
26. Teachers cannot afford to relax.
27. Rules and regulations are somewhat vague and ambiguous.
28. Teachers are expected to follow set rules in doing their work.
29. This place would be one of the first to try out a new idea.
30. Work space is awfully crowded.
31. Teachers seem to take pride in the school.
32. Teachers rarely do things together after school.
33. Senior staff usually give full credit to ideas contributed by teachers.
34. Teachers can use their own initiative to do things.
35. This is a highly efficient, work-oriented place.
36. The staff doesn't work too hard.
37. The responsibilities of senior masters are clearly defined.
38. Senior staff keep a rather close watch on teachers.
39. Variety and change are not particularly important.
40. This place has a stylish and modern appearance.
41. Teachers put quite a lot of effort into what they do.
42. Teachers are generally frank about how they feel.
43. Senior staff often criticize teachers over minor things.
44. Senior staff encourage teachers to rely on themselves when a problem arises.

45. Getting a lot of work done is important to teachers.
46. There is no time pressure.
47. The details of assigned jobs are generally explained to teachers.
48. Rules and regulations are pretty well enforced.
49. The same methods have been used for quite a long time.
50. The place could stand some new interior decorations.
51. Few teachers ever volunteer.
52. Teachers often eat lunch together.
53. Teachers generally feel free to ask for assistance from other staff.
54. Teachers generally do not try to be unique and different.
55. There's an emphasis on "work before play".
56. It is very hard to keep up with your work load.
57. Teachers are often confused about exactly what they are supposed to do.
58. Senior staff are always checking on teachers and supervise them very closely.
59. New approaches to things are rarely tried.
60. The colours and decorations make the place warm and cheerful to work in.
61. It is quite a lively place.
62. Teachers who differ greatly from the others in the school don't get on well.
63. Senior staff expect far too much from teachers.
64. Teachers are encouraged to learn things even if they are not directly related to the job.
65. Teachers work very hard.
66. You can take it easy and still get your work done.
67. The fringe benefits of the profession are fully explained to teachers.
68. The school administration does not often give in to teacher pressure.
69. Things tend to stay just about the same.

70. The rooms are rather draughty at times.
71. It's hard to get teachers to do any extra work.
72. Teachers often talk to each other about their personal problems.
73. Teachers discuss their personal problems with senior staff.
74. Teachers function fairly independently of senior staff.
75. The staff seems to be quite inefficient.
76. There are always deadlines to be met.
77. Rules and policies are constantly changing.
78. Teachers are expected to conform rather strictly to the rules and customs.
79. There is a fresh, novel atmosphere about the place.
80. The furniture is usually well arranged.
81. The work is usually very interesting.
82. Often some teachers make trouble by talking behind others' backs.
83. Senior staff really stand up for their teachers.
84. Senior staff meet with teachers regularly to discuss their future work goals.
85. There's a tendency for the staff to come to work late.
86. Teachers often have to work long hours to get their work done.
87. Senior staff and the school administration encourage teachers to be neat and orderly.
88. There are no firm rules about teacher punctuality.
89. Things always seem to be changing.
90. The rooms are well ventilated.

ANSWER SHEET

A C T U A L

T = TRUE

F = FALSE

1. T F	11. T F	21. T F	31. T F	41. T F	51. T F	61. T F	71. T F	81. T F
2. T F	12. T F	22. T F	32. T F	42. T F	52. T F	62. T F	72. T F	82. T F
3. T F	13. T F	23. T F	33. T F	43. T F	53. T F	63. T F	73. T F	83. T F
4. T F	14. T F	24. T F	34. T F	44. T F	54. T F	64. T F	74. T F	84. T F
5. T F	15. T F	25. T F	35. T F	45. T F	55. T F	65. T F	75. T F	85. T F
6. T F	16. T F	26. T F	36. T F	46. T F	56. T F	66. T F	76. T F	86. T F
7. T F	17. T F	27. T F	37. T F	47. T F	57. T F	67. T F	77. T F	87. T F
8. T F	18. T F	28. T F	38. T F	48. T F	58. T F	68. T F	78. T F	88. T F
9. T F	19. T F	29. T F	39. T F	49. T F	59. T F	69. T F	79. T F	89. T F
10. T F	20. T F	30. T F	40. T F	50. T F	60. T F	70. T F	80. T F	90. T F

WORK ENVIRONMENT SCALE (WES)

Scale Allocation and Scoring Procedure

Involvement	Peer Cohesion	Staff Support	Autonomy	Task Orientation	Work Pressure	Clarity	Control	Innovation	Physical Comfort
1+	2+	3-	4-	5+	6+	7-	8+	9+	10-
11-	12-	13+	14+	15-	16+	17+	18-	19+	20+
21-	22+	23-	24+	25+	26+	27-	28+	29+	30-
31+	32-	33+	34+	35+	36-	37+	38+	39-	40+
41+	42+	43-	44+	45+	46-	47+	48+	49-	50-
51-	52+	53+	54-	55+	56+	57-	58+	59-	60+
61+	62-	63-	64+	65+	66-	67+	68+	69-	70-
71-	72+	73+	74+	75-	76+	77-	78+	79+	80+
81+	82-	83+	84+	85-	86+	87+	88-	89+	90+

Items designated (+) are scored 3 and 1 respectively, for the responses of True and False..

Items designated (-) are scored in the reverse manner. Omitted or invalid responses are scored 2.

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. What kinds of activities and/or services would you include under the heading of professional development?
2. What do you expect to get out of professional development activities?
3. What is your motivation to attend professional development activities?
4. To what extent have your expectations been realised?
5. If not fully realised, why not?
6. What personal constraints limit your involvement in professional development activities?
7. What frustrations have you encountered, if any, in your professional development activities, especially where further study is involved?
8. What support has your school given for you to undertake professional development?
9. What type of reactions have you experienced as a result of your involvement in professional development activities?
10. What support has the school given for you to follow through what you have gained from professional development activities?
11. Do you have any professional needs that could be served by school-based activities?
12. Do you have any professional needs that could be serviced by system based activities?
13. Could you indicate specific professional development activities in which you would like to participate in the future?
14. Cite any professional development activity which has been valuable to you.
15. Cite any professional development activities which were a waste of time to you?
16. Has your involvement in professional development activities changed you in any ways?
17. To what extent have these changes been maintained?
18. In what ways has involvement in professional development activities improved the general climate of the school?
19. Who should be responsible for your professional development?
20. From where should the financial resources for professional development come?

21. Should professional development activities be offered to all staff in the school?
22. How can the school administrators best help to encourage professional development activities in the school?
23. Does the school have a suitable professional library?
24. How would you describe your use of that library?
25. What would increase your use of that library?
26. What is the best way to obtain information on professional development in the school?
27. Are you aware of the ways of getting your professional needs satisfied?
28. Is there any other comment you would like to make regarding any part of professional development?

INTERVIEW : DATA COLLECTIONTAPE

- . RECORDS ALL
- . USE METERED RECORDER
- . TAPES CAN BE PASSED IN
- . TIME TO LISTEN TO TAPE AND WRITE UP (30 + 30)
- . INTERVIEWEE CAN CONTROL RECORDER
- . INTERVIEWER MUST BE COMPETENT WITH RECORDER

INTERVIEW SHEETS

- . INTERVIEW SCHEDULE ON SHEETS
- . TWO QUESTIONS PER PAGE
- . GRIDS WOULD BE ADVANTAGEOUS
- . MORE OPEN TO BIAS BY INTERVIEWER.
SHE RECORDS WHAT SHE FEELS RELEVANT.
- . ALL RESPONSES TO EACH QUESTION CAN BE TYPED ON ONE SHEET AND THIS MAKES FOR EASIER INTERPRETATION.
- . CLERICAL ASSISTANCE?
- . CHECK OF ORIGINAL MATERIAL IMPOSSIBLE
- . INTERVIEWER PREOCCUPIED WITH RECORDING (TEAM OF 2)

TEAMS

- . TEAMS OF 2 (HUGHES REPORT)
- . ONE QUESTIONS AND ONE RECORDS
- . INTERVIEW WRITTEN UP AND RETURNED TO INTERVIEWEE FOR ADDITIONS/DELETIONS/CHANGE.
- . SUMMARY SIGNED BY INTERVIEWEE AND RETURNED.
- . COLLATION
- . NON TEACHING PARENT OF STUDENT WOULD MAKE IDEAL RECORDER

WEEK AHEAD GIVE INTERVIEW
SCHEDULE TO INTERVIEWEES

PROBE DIFFICULT

INTERVIEW METHOD

1. ALL TEACHERS SHOULD HAVE OPPORTUNITY TO MAKE AN INITIAL STATEMENT REGARDS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES AND USEFULNESS.
2. IN SMALL SCHOOLS (UNDER 20 STAFF) ALL TEACHERS TO BE INTERVIEWED.
3. IF OVER 20 STAFF A RANDOM SAMPLE SHOULD BE TAKEN. (SUGGEST FROM SCHOOL COMPUTER LIST)
E.G. IF 40, EVERY SECOND STAFF MEMBER.
4. IF POSSIBLE EVEN IN LARGER SCHOOLS ALL STAFF SHOULD BE INTERVIEWED.
5. THE PRINCIPAL OF ALL SCHOOLS SHOULD BE INTERVIEWED SEPARATELY (SENIOR STAFF).
6. INTERESTING ISSUES OR SIMILAR GROUPS IN A SCHOOL COULD BE FOLLOWED UP IN
GROUP INTERVIEWS ON THAT ISSUE OR GROUP. 2-6 PEOPLE WOULD FORM AN IDEAL GROUP.

E.G. SENIOR STAFF
GROUP OF 1-3 YEAR EXPERIENCED TEACHERS
GROUP OF MIDDLE AGED TEACHERS
WOMEN (e.g. MARRIED)
ISOLATED TEACHERS

FOLLOW UP BY GROUPS IS SCHOOL DECISION.

THE SCHOOL-BASED STAFF DEVELOPMENT
PRACTICES INVENTORY
© 1980, Steven Ray Thompson

PART I: PRACTICES

Listed below are a number of statements that could be used to describe various practices in school-based staff development programs. Next to each statement are two columns.

In the first column, please indicate the degree to which you believe each statement describes existing practices in the school or system where you now work by circling the number beneath the appropriate descriptor. In the second column, indicate the degree to which you believe each statement describes what should be practiced.

1. A positive school climate is developed before other staff development efforts are attempted. (A positive climate is characterized by open communications, trust, and supportive relationships.)
2. Goals for school improvement are written collaboratively by teachers, parents and senior staff in schools.
3. The school has a written list of goals for the improvement of school programs during the next three to five years.
4. The school staff adopts and supports goals for the improvement of school programs.
5. Current school practices are examined to determine which ones are congruent with the school's goals for improvement before staff development activities are planned.

WHAT EXISTS				WHAT SHOULD BE			
Almost never	Sometimes	Often	Almost always	Almost never	Sometimes	Often	Almost always
1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4

SURVEY OF SCHOOL-BASED STAFF DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES

	WHAT EXISTS				WHAT SHOULD BE			
	Almost never	Sometimes	Often	Almost always	Almost never	Sometimes	Often	Almost always
6. Current educational practices not yet found in the school are examined to determine which ones are congruent with the school's goals for improvement before staff development activities are planned.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
7. The school staff identifies specific plans to achieve the school's goals for improvement.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
8. Leadership and support during the initial stage of staff development activity is the responsibility of the principal and Regional and State administration and services staff.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
9. Differences between desired and actual practices in the school are examined to identify the inservice needs of the staff.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
10. Planning of staff development activities relies, in part, upon information gathered directly from school staff members.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
11. Inservice planners use information about the learning styles of participants when planning staff development activities.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
12. Staff development programs include objectives for inservice activities covering as much as five years.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
13. The resources (time, money, people and materials) available for use in staff development are identified prior to planning inservice activities.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4

SURVEY OF SCHOOL-BASED STAFF DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES

	WHAT EXISTS				WHAT SHOULD BE			
	Almost never	Sometimes	Often	Almost always	Almost never	Sometimes	Often	Almost always
14. Staff development programs include plans for activities to be conducted during the following three to five years.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
15. Specific objectives are written for staff development activities.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
16. Staff development objectives include objectives for attitude development (new outlooks and feelings).	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
17. Staff development objectives include objectives for increased knowledge (new information and understanding).	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
18. Staff development objectives include objectives for skill development (new work behaviors).	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
19. Leadership during the planning of inservice programs is shared among teachers and administrators.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
20. Staff development activities include the use of learning teams in which two to seven participants share and discuss learning experiences.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
21. Individual school staff members choose objectives for their own professional learning.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
22. Individual school staff members choose the staff development activities in which they participate.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
23. Staff development activities include experiential activities in which participants try out new behaviors and techniques.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4

SURVEY OF SCHOOL-BASED STAFF DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES

	WHAT EXISTS				WHAT SHOULD BE			
	Almost never	Sometimes	Often	Almost always	Almost never	Sometimes	Often	Almost always
24. Peers help to teach one another by serving as inservice leaders.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
25. School principals participate in staff development activities with their staffs.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
26. Leaders of staff development activities are selected according to their expertise rather than their position.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
27. As participants in staff development activities become increasingly competent, leadership behavior becomes less directive or task-oriented.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
28. As participants in staff development activities become increasingly confident in their abilities, the leader transfers increasing responsibility to the participants.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
29. After participating in inservice activities participants have access to support services to help implement new behaviors as part of their regular work.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
30. School staff members who attempt to implement new learnings are recognized and rewarded for their efforts.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
31. The leaders of staff development activities visit the job setting, when needed, to help the inservice participants refine or review previous learning.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
32. School staff members use peer supervision to assist one another in implementing new work behaviors.	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4

PART II: BELIEFS

Listed below are ten beliefs that could shape staff development practices. Next to each statement is a column of numbers

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each statement by circling the number beneath the appropriate descriptor.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
39. All school personnel should be involved in professional development throughout their careers to stay current and effective.	1	2	3	4
40. Significant improvement in educational practice takes considerable time and is the result of systematic, long-range staff development.	1	2	3	4
41. Inservice education should focus on improving the quality of the school program.	1	2	3	4
42. Adult learners are motivated to risk learning new behaviors when they believe they have control over the learning situation and are free from threat.	1	2	3	4
43. Educators vary widely in their professional competencies, readiness for learning and approaches to learning.	1	2	3	4
44. Professional growth requires commitment to new professional practices.	1	2	3	4
45. Organizational health, including factors such as social climate trust, open communication, and peer support for change in practices, influences the success of professional development programs.	1	2	3	4
46. The school is the most appropriate unit of change, not the district or the individual.	1	2	3	4

BELIEFS

47. The Education Department has the primary responsibility for providing the resources and training necessary for a school staff to implement new programs and improve instruction.

48. The school principal is the "gate-keeper" or key element for adoption and continued use of new practices and programs in a school.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4